Spring 1998

The sexual harassment paradox in graduate school: Experiences and answers

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THE SEXUAL HARASSMENT PARADOX IN GRADUATE SCHOOL: EXPERIENCES AND ANSWERS

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the University of New Hampshire

in Partial Fulfillment of

the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Psychology

May, 1998

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For my parents, Costa Smirles and Sandra Shapleigh,

who motivated me to challenge myself

and for Mrs. Driscoll, who will always be with me.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I would like to thank Ellen Cohn for her guidance and support as my advisor and mentor. She has always made time for me and helped me to focus when I felt overwhelmed by the immenseness of doing research on as complex and controversial a social issue as sexual harassment. I will always be grateful for her generosity and kindness. Ellen treated me like a colleague and helped me to develop my skills and confidence as a researcher.

I also want to thank my remaining committee members. Becky Warner has been an incredible source of statistical expertise for the last five years. Her guidance has helped me feel secure in my approach to experimental design and statistical analyses. Vicki Banyard is my source and sounding board on feminist theory and methodology. It was with her assistance that I came to realize and appreciate my feminist identity. Sally Ward helped me to shape the focus of my dissertation research. Her sociological perspective gave me a theoretical and practical framework from which to build by methodological design. Todd DeMitchell has provided me with a clearer understanding of the legal issues surrounding sexual harassment. In examining individual perceptions, we cannot ignore the law, because it is based upon the collective perceptions of society.

I greatly appreciate the financial and moral support of the Graduate School. Bruce Mallory, Harry Richards, and Gloria VanBeaver have each been there for me in various ways. Their support of graduate students makes us all feel like a real and important part of the university.

My parents have been incredible influences on my life. They gave me the strength to face adversity and the need to question and discover the world around me. Their emotional and financial support have made my education possible.

To Mrs. Driscoll, I owe my inspiration to teach. She showed me unconditional positive regard and trust. She encouraged me to develop my creativity, gave me the freedom to explore the world in my own way, and made me want to strive to be my very best. I miss her greatly, but she lives on in my love for teaching and my desire to change the world for the better.

I truly want to thank all of my friends who provided me with so much support over the last few years. Kathy Bauman is an incredible friend and a very special person. She helped me through many a stressful moments in my life by simply being who she is-- honest, open, and caring. Heather Chabot is indeed the best graduate student our department has seen. Her enthusiasm, dedication, and compassion make her an excellent colleague, researcher, and teacher. She is also a wonderful friend and mother. Kristen Migliaccio-Walle is my window to reality. She sees things for what they are, and I have always trusted in her opinions and insight. Fang-Yu Chi is my confidante and fellow fun-lover. Our excursions out on the weekends often helped me maintain my sanity. To my best friend, Kathy Dutt. I have always felt the strength of our friendship, despite the miles between us. To the artists I have come to know and adore over the last year and a half-- Adeline, Michael, Kappy, DeWitt, Louis, Margie, Diane, and Sue. They taught me the beauty of the human form, both inside and out. Mimi Levy helped me to find my spiritual self. Her guidance and unconditional acceptance have made an incredible difference in my life. Julie Nadueau is truly the data entry queen! I trust her more than myself in that area of research, and she has always been a wonderful friend. And to all my other friends who were a big part of my life for the last five years-- Chrissy Augello, Cathy Carpenter, Bobbie Glode, Glenn Geher, Shelley Strowman, Gabrielle Walle, and Becky Regeth.

I would not be here today if it were not for the support of so many people. I want to thank you all for touching my life in so many special ways.

You will always be in my heart.

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ABSTRACT

THE SEXUAL HARASSMENT PARADOX IN GRADUATE SCHOOL:

EXPERIENCES AND ANSWERS

by

Kimberly Ann Smirles

University of New Hampshire, May, 1998

Sexual harassment is a pervasive problem in higher education (Truax, 1996). Graduate students occupy a unique power position in academia as both students and teachers. As such, they are potentially victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment. The purpose of the current research was to (a) understand the dynamics of sexual harassment by examining the experiences and perceptions of graduate students and (b) assess whether a commonly utilized education program was effective in raising awareness and changing the attitudes of graduate students. Graduate students from both the University of New Hampshire (Study 1) and around the country (Study 2) were asked about their experiences as victims and perpetrators of unwanted sexual behavior, their perceptions about how sexual harassment is behaviorally and legally defined, and certain attitudes surrounding the issue. Men and women did not tend to vary in their perceptions or experiences as predicted; however, other personal (marital status, coping strategies) and situational (department sex-ratio) variables did predict participants' victimization experiences. In Study 3, graduate students' knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes were assessed before and two months after an educational program on sexual harassment. Participants' awareness of university policies and procedures increased over time; however, their behavioral definitions of sexual harassment became narrower, and their attitudes did not change. The implications of these findings for applied research aimed at eliminating sexual harassment are discussed.

I. INTRODUCTION

Although recognized as a form of discrimination since the late 1970s, sexual harassment has only recently become the focus of public concern and scrutiny. While researchers contend that sexual harassment is a serious social problem (e.g., Fitzgerald, 1993; Koss, 1990; Lott & Reilly, 1996), the actual nature of "the beast" is still not entirely understood by lay persons or researchers. Sexual harassment is viewed as an expression of power, rather than sex, where people in power abuse those without power (Fitzgerald, 1993; Lips, 1991; MacKinnon, 1979; Quina, 1996). Typically, researchers focus on victimization or perpetration in a specific population. Graduate students are often both students and teachers in the academic setting. They could be victims and/or perpetrators, creating a "double-bind" position. The effects of graduate students' unique power position have been largely ignored by researchers. Therefore, the first purpose of the present research was to examine graduate students' perceptions of sexual harassment and their experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment.

Once we understand people's perceptions and experiences concerning sexual harassment, the next step is to try to eliminate it. Numerous education programs have been implemented in order to reduce the incidence of sexual harassment. However, the effectiveness of these programs goes unchecked (Grundmann, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997). The second purpose of the present research was to assess the outcomes of a standard sexual harassment education program conducted for graduate students.

Defining Sexual Harassment

In order to begin to understand the social phenomenon of sexual harassment, a set of parameters about what constitutes sexual harassment must first be established. Dziech and Weiner (1990) argued that a "sound definition not only sets policy, it also informs and educates the community," (p. 21). Unfortunately, there is often great disparity between

legal, behavioral, and individual definitions of sexual harassment (Gutek, 1985; Fitzgerald, 1996; Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997). For example, men and women often don't agree on what behaviors constitute sexual harassment (e.g., Baird, Bensko, Bell, Viney, & Woody, 1995). While forms of racial and ethnic discrimination are generally recognized as such, the behaviors which can constitute sexual harassment are ambiguous and often misunderstood (Paludi & Barickman, 1991). An examination of how sexual harassment is legally defined, operationalized behaviorally, and differentially viewed by individuals is essential to attaining a more comprehensive picture about how sexual harassment is described and perceived by an entire society.

Legal Definitions

The legal system has been struggling with how to define "sexual harassment" for over 30 years. Sex discrimination was first legally prohibited by the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VII states in part that employers cannot discriminate against an individual based upon his or her sex.[1] Sex discrimination was explicitly prohibited in academic institutions receiving federal funding by the passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (in Riggs, Murrell, & Cutting, 1993).

While sex discrimination has been illegal since the 1960s, the term "sexual harassment" did not come into common usage until the late 1970s. MacKinnon (1979) notes, "It is not surprising... that women would not complain of an experience for which there [was] no name. Until 1979, lacking a term to express it, sexual harassment was literally unspeakable, which made a generalized, shared, and social definition of it inaccessible," (p. 27). In the legal system, sexual harassment first became recognized as a form of sex discrimination in 1976 (*Williams v. Saxbe,* 1976).

Currently, the most widely utilized legal definition of sexual harassment was put forth by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1980 (EEOC, 1980). The EEOC defined sexual harassment as "unwelcomed sexual or gender-based behavior where (a) submission to the conduct is made a term or condition, either explicitly or implicitly, of

obtaining education or employment; (b) submission to or rejection of the conduct is used as a factor in decisions affecting that person's education or employment; (c) the conduct has either the purpose or effect of substantially interfering with a person's education or employment; or (d) the conduct creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive educational or work environment," (p. 4). The first two stipulations are commonly referred to as "quid pro quo" sexual harassment, while the latter two describe "hostile environment" sexual harassment.[2]

Sexual harassment was further defined by the legal system in two classic court cases. The definitive hostile environment case was also the first to reach the Supreme Court (*Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson,* 1986). Mechelle Vinson brought suit against Meritor Savings Bank, charging that she was subjected to repeated sexual harassment during her four years working for Vice-President Sidney Taylor. The Court noted that the EEOC guidelines for hostile environment sexual harassment "provide that [Taylor's] sexual misconduct constitutes prohibited 'sexual harassment,' whether or not it is directly linked to the grant or denial of an economic quid pro quo," (p. 2405). Through their decision, the Court confirmed the EEOC's distinctions of quid pro quo and hostile work environment sexual harassment and established them as legal guidelines. *Meritor* established the basic test for hostile work environment forms of sexual harassment.

The Court in *Harris v. Forklift Systems Inc.* (1993) supported *Meritor* and added some clarifying language. Teresa Harris charged that the president of her former employer created an "abusive work environment" based upon her sex. The Court directed that behaviors legally constitute hostile environment sexual harassment when the work environment can be judged as unreasonably hostile, intimidating, or abusive. More specifically, legal decisions about sexual harassment must take into account a "reasonable person's" objective judgment as well as a victim's subjective perceptions of the severity and pervasiveness of the situation. In addition, the Court concluded that all of the circumstances of a case must be taken into account; these include (a) the frequency and

severity of the behavior, (b) whether the behavior is physically threatening or humiliating, or a mere offensive utterance, (c) and whether it unreasonably interferes with an employee's work performance. This decision established that victims do not have to prove psychological harm or any other tangible injuries to claim sexual harassment.

While legal definitions provide general frameworks defining sexual harassment, they are often ambiguous and general. After reviewing various university policies on sexual harassment, Crocker (1983) argued that flexible definitions allow for the inclusion of a variety of behaviors as sexual harassment and acknowledge the victim's interpretation as being paramount to determining a behavior or set of behaviors to constitute sexual harassment. However, legal definitions can also leave the public, law enforcement agencies, businesses, and researchers alike unclear about the domain of behaviors which can define sexual harassment. For example, Barr (1993) argued that "the lack of a clear and specific legal definition of what constitutes sexually harassing behavior... contributes to the conflicting results of studies of people's perceptions of sexual harassment," (p. 460). In the past two decades, several researchers have attempted to behaviorally define and classify sexual harassment in order to assess its prevalence and nature.

Behavioral Definitions

In the earliest attempt to define the domain of sexually harassing behavior, Till (1980) identified five categories of sexual harassment: (1) gender harassment (i.e. generalized sexist remarks and behavior), (2) seductive behavior (i.e. inappropriate and offensive, but essentially sanction-free sexual advances), (3) sexual bribery (i.e. solicitation of sexual activity or other sex-related behavior by promise of reward), (4) sexual coercion (i.e. coercion of sexual activity by threat of punishment), and (5) sexual assault (i.e. sexual crimes and misdemeanors). He based this categorization on the experiences of actual victims. Till acknowledged that these categories are not distinct from one another. He conceived of his classification as representing a continuum of severity, moving from verbal (i.e. mild) to physical (i.e. severe) behavior.[3]

Gruber (1992) proposed a modified taxonomy of sexually harassing behaviors. Unlike Till, Gruber based his typology upon an analysis of the sexual harassment research literature and actual court cases. He placed 11 specific forms of sexually harassing behavior into three general harassment types: (1) verbal requests, (2) verbal remarks, and (3) nonverbal displays. Verbal requests include sexual bribery, sexual advances, relational advances (i.e. request for social relationship), and subtle or ambiguous pressures/advances. Verbal remarks can refer to personal remarks, subjective objectification (i.e. remarks *about* a woman), and sexual categorical remarks. The distinction between these first two categories is that "requests" are statements with the goal of attaining sexual or relational intimacy, while "remarks" are comments meant to insult or demean. Finally, nonverbal displays include behaviors such as sexual assault, sexual touching, sexual posturing (e.g., violation of space, attempts to touch), and sexually explicit materials. Gruber's (1992) goal was to create a mutually exclusive and exhaustive categorization for sexually harassing behavior. However, his typology cannot be directly mapped onto the legal distinctions of quid pro quo and hostile environment sexual harassment. Since legal definitions are broad, defining sexual harassment behaviorally within the legal guidelines provides society with a framework by which to judge specific cases of alleged sexual harassment.

The most recent attempt to define a more parsimonious, yet inclusive, classification of sexually harassing behavior was made by Fitzgerald and her colleagues (in Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997). Their model of sexual harassment established three dimensions: (1) gender harassment, (2) unwanted sexual attention, and (3) sexual coercion. Similar to Till's category, gender harassment includes those verbal and physical behavior committed with the intention of degrading and insulting women (e.g., sexual slurs and gestures, display of pornographic materials); gaining sexual favors is not the goal of this behavior.[4] Unwanted sexual attention is verbal and physical behavior that is unwelcome by the target; this can include such behaviors as sexual touching and sexual advances. Finally, sexual

coercion is, "the paradigmatic example of sexual harassment, [and] refers to the extortion of sexual cooperation in return for job-related considerations," (p. 11). Fitzgerald and her colleagues refered to their categorization as the "tripartite" model of sexual harassment.

Unlike Gruber's (1992) typology, the tripartite model of sexual harassment consists of mutually exclusive categories and can be described in terms of the legal definition of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997). Gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention fall under hostile environment sexual harassment, and sexual coercion represents quid pro quo sexual harassment. Fitzgerald and her colleagues derived the tripartite model from several survey studies conducted in various settings (i.e. workplace, academic) and argued that it provides a framework from which internally valid survey instruments can be developed.

Behavioral definitions can provide the legal system and society with a framework for understanding how sexual harassment manifests itself. However, researchers have long acknowledged that sexual harassment is far from being clearly defined (e.g., Fitzgerald, 1993; Fitzgerald, 1996; MacKinnon, 1979; Riger, 1991). Particularly with regards to hostile environment sexual harassment, behaviors are often ambiguous and left up to the interpretation of the recipient. Unfortunately, people do not view the same behaviors as sexually harassing. For example, some people are not offended by sexual jokes, while others are deeply disturbed by them. Researchers have repeatedly found individual differences in defining behaviors as sexual harassment. The most prominent individual difference factor has been the sex of the rater (e.g., see reviews by Fitzgerald, 1993 and Riger, 1991).

Individual Definitions: Sex Differences in Defining Sexual Harassment

It has been well-documented in the research literature that women are more likely to label a given situation or behavior as sexual harassment than men (e.g., Baird et al., 1995; Fitzgerald & Ormerod, 1990; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Popovich, Gehlauf, Jolton, Somers, & Godinho, 1992; Powell, 1986). In fact, Fitzgerald (1996) argued that in research on

people's definitions of sexual harassment the sex of the rater was the most robust finding of any individual factor examined.

Baird et al. (1995) had 198 undergraduates read 34 scenarios depicting workplace interactions between men and women. The scenario types ranged from fairly innocuous behavior (e.g., "A man walks past a female employee's desk and says, 'That's a great looking blouse, you really look good in blue.'") to more excessive behavior (e.g., "A female boss calls out to her male secretary, 'Why don't you bring those tight buns of yours in here, I need to send a memo.'"). Participants rated each scenario on the extent to which they considered it to represent sexual harassment. Baird et al. (1995) found that female participants rated significantly more behaviors as sexual harassment than male participants.

Popovich et al. (1992) had 198 undergraduate students read a scenario depicting an interaction between two individuals. The researchers manipulated the form of sexual harassment (physical or verbal) and its consequence (economic injury or hostile environment). For example, "Person A experiences unwelcome sexual advances or other physical conduct of a sexual nature from Person B. Such conduct involves an expressed or implied condition of employment or is the basis for any employment decision affecting Person A," (p. 614). Popovich et al. (1992) found that female participants rated the statements as more definitely sexual harassment than did males.

Sex differences in defining sexual harassment have been found in populations other than undergraduate students and to vary based upon the form of harassing behavior. Fitzgerald and Ormerod (1990) presented 208 faculty and 314 graduate students with 24 scenarios describing Till's (1980) five categories of sexual harassment. They found that while females consistently rated all behaviors as more harassing than males, the differences between female and male ratings increased with the ambiguity of the scenario. Situations depicting hostile environment sexual harassment yielded significant sex differences in ratings, whereas males and females mostly agreed on quid pro quo scenarios. This effect was similar for both faculty and graduate students.

Such sex differences in defining sexual harassment suggested that women are more sensitive than men to the issue, and thus to the act of sexual harassment. Kenig and Ryan (1986) discussed sex differences in a minimization-maximization model. Women maximize the issue of sexual harassment, because it is such an important issue for them as a group. Men, on the other hand, minimize sexual harassment to separate themselves from responsibility for such acts. In most actual cases of sexual harassment, the perpetrator is male and the victim is female (Gutek, 1985; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982). Researchers estimated that anywhere from 30-75% of women will be sexually harassed in their lifetimes (see reviews in Paludi & Barickman, 1991 and Fitzgerald, 1996). Realizing women's predominant role as the victim makes it clear why women have a personal investment in how sexual harassment is defined (Powell, 1986; Smirles & Cohn, 1996). The minimization-maximization model reflects differences in perceived self-interest and may at least partially account for sex differences. Powell (1986) argued that men's and women's differential experience as perpetrators and victims was the only necessary and appropriate explanation for sex differences in defining sexual harassment.

The concern over sex differences in perceptions of sexual harassment is reflected in the application of a "reasonable woman" standard over the "reasonable person" standard in legal cases of sexual harassment (i.e. Would a reasonable woman/person find the behavior to be sexually harassing?) (see Conte, 1997 for a review of court cases where the reasonable woman standard was upheld). Several researchers (Conte, 1997; Freedman & Swim, 1997; Riger, 1991) cited arguments that the reasonable person standard is often prone to male-bias and systematically ignores females' perceptions. However, some researchers (Eisenman, 1995; Meads, 1993; Thacker & Gohmann, 1993; Wiener, Watts, Goldkamp, & Gasper, 1995) argued that the "reasonable woman" standard is unreasonable, because it (a) assumes that men can never understand the perspective of the victim and (b) does not ultimately change how jurors evaluate a case of sexual harassment (see Wiener et al., 1995 for an experimental comparison of the "reasonable person" and

"reasonable woman standards"). While it remains to be seen whether the "reasonable woman" standard is effective, its existence illustrates the vast sex differences in defining sexual harassment.

Baker, Terpstra, and Cutler (1990) argued that sex differences found in the sexual harassment research were due more to ambiguous stimulus materials and questions than actual differences in perceptions between men and women about what behavior constitutes sexual harassment. They cited previous researchers' findings (e.g., Gutek, 1985) that men tend to interpret ambiguous social-sexual cues more positively than women. When Baker, Terpstra, and Cutler (1990) presented students and state employees with detailed scenarios, they found few significant sex differences in labeling of the scenarios as sexual harassment. They concluded that their questionnaire may be a more accurate assessment of perceptual differences, because its scenarios were (a) clear in their descriptions of the details of the incident and (b) specific in their questions about the scenarios.

In the real world, experiences which may or may not constitute sexual harassment are rarely clear and detailed (e.g., Benson & Thomson, 1982; Fitzgerald, 1996). In fact, ambiguity is all too often the hallmark of hostile environment sexual harassment. Therefore, while ambiguity may indeed be responsible for sex differences in perceptions of sexual harassment, such a factor is far from irrelevant to understanding this social problem. Additionally, in the past few years, sexual harassment has become a popular issue in the media, the workplace, and academia. It is important to know whether people's definitions of sexual harassment have changed with the substantial public attention. Finally, most researchers examining academic populations utilize workplace, rather than academic, scenarios. Students would most likely have more experience and understanding of an academic than a workplace environment. Based upon these issues, the current research included an analysis of whether graduate students continued to vary in their definitions of sexual harassment based upon their sex. However, the situations which they were asked to label were placed in an academic context.

Individual Definitions: Emerging Issues

Barr (1993) argued that examining people's perceptions of sexual harassment is a major step toward intervention. Therefore, one of researchers' goals should be to gain a comprehensive understanding of individual perceptions of sexual harassment. Two major issues need to be addressed before such a goal can be reached. First, researchers of individual definitions of sexual harassment have examined how people label either specific behaviors or scenarios. However, they have never accounted for people's knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment. It is possible that those with a clearer understanding of how sexual harassment is legally defined would label more behaviors as sexual harassment than those without such knowledge.

Second, researchers have been inconsistent in their selection of variable to examine. For example, while age has been examined in some studies (e.g., Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982), no one has examined this factor in a graduate student population. Often, age is confounded with power status in the workplace (i.e. older individuals have more power). However, graduate students do not necessarily fit this trend. Some graduate students are older than their professors or younger than their undergraduate students.

In order to address these issues, the current research involved a systematic analysis of individual definitions of sexual harassment. The participants' knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment was examined as possible influences on how they labeled behaviors. In addition, exploratory analyses were conducted to assess whether other personal factors (i.e. attitudes toward sexual harassment) affected individual definitions.

Experiences With Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is pervasive in our culture (Fitzgerald, 1996; Fitzgerald, 1993; MacKinnon, 1979). The experiences of victims and perpetrators can provide us with an understanding of the dynamics of sexual harassment-- what happens, how do people react, what individual factors influence the process, etc. Such information is critical to developing policies and programs aimed at eliminating sexual harassment.

Prevalence Research

Several researchers have focused upon the nature and frequency of sexual harassment in various populations (e.g., Safran, 1976; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982). The first published documents of sexual harassment were in the popular press and in psychological case studies (see Gutek, 1985). The focus of many of these studies was on women's experiences in the workplace. For example, in a national survey of 9,000 clerical and professional women conducted by *Redbook* magazine, 90% reported they had experienced some form of harassment (Safran, 1976). Such findings prompted more extensive and systematic research on sexual harassment.

One of the most extensive sets of data on workplace sexual harassment was collected in 1980 by the U. S. Merit Systems Protection Board (USMSPB). The USMSPB surveyed over 20,000 male (n = 9,439) and female (n = 10,644) federal employees about their experiences with sexual harassment, ranging from unwanted sexual teasing or remarks to actual or attempted rape or sexual assault. Tangri, Burt, and Johnson (1982) analyzed this data set and found that 42% of the females and 15% of the males reported having experienced sexual harassment on the job in the last two years. The most frequently reported behaviors were unwanted teasing, jokes, remarks or questions (77.1% of the females, 69.7% of the males).

Researchers have also examined sexual harassment in secondary and post-secondary educational settings. In a survey of 561 adolescents, Roscoe, Strouse, and Goodwin (1994) found that 50% of the females and 37% of the males had been victims of sexual harassment perpetrated by their peers. Benson and Thomson (1982) developed a questionnaire on "unwanted sexual attention" based upon informal interviews with women. Of the 400 randomly selected female undergraduate students who were sent the questionnaire, 269 responded. Eighty reported having experienced at least one incident of sexual harassment during their college career. Such experiences included explicit sexual propositions, fondling, and grades offered in exchange for an affair.

Truax (1996) argued that higher education is particularly prone to sexual harassment. In fact, Dziech and Weiner (1990) referred to the problem of sexual harassment on campuses as an "epidemic." The organization of a university or college is less linear than most businesses; power differences between the various populations (i.e. faculty, staff, administration, graduate students, undergraduate students) are often not clear. However, the power of faculty over students is quite clear and extensive, "the professors' discretionary power regarding grades, recommendations,... is enormous," (Hotelling, 1991, p. 497). The environment is also distinctly different. Establishing "appropriate" patterns of behavior is more problematic on college campuses than in professional business settings. The autonomy of professors creates difficulties for the institution in dealing with complaints. For example, tenured professors cannot just be fired or transferred to another department. "Sexual harassment has been depicted as an eccentricity that higher education often rewards," (Truax, 1996, p. 72).

Most studies of academic sexual harassment involved undergraduate samples (e.g., Benson & Thomson, 1982; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Reilly, Lott, Caldwell, & DeLuca, 1992; also see review by Fitzgerald, 1996). Only a handful of researchers have examined the victimization of graduate students.

Graduate Students: Targets of Harassment

Graduate students maintain a very unique and often precarious position within academia, "Graduate students are vulnerable; their futures lie in the hands of professors who grade them, recommend them for fellowships, and write reference letters for internships, jobs, and postdocs," (Lott, 1996, p. 243). Benson and Thomson (1982) and Schneider (1987) pointed out that professors have more direct power over graduate students than undergraduates. For example, graduate students are typically matched with an advisor based upon their research interests or specialties, making it difficult to change advisors when problems arise.

Recognizing that being an employee and a student can place many contradictory pressures on graduate students, Schneider (1987) examined the experiences of 356 female graduate students. She found that 60% of the students reported experiences with "everyday harassment" (e.g., verbal comments, sexist jokes, physical contact). Thirteen percent of the sample actually dated a faculty member during their graduate careers; of those women, 30% felt pressured to date and 30% felt pressured to be sexual with the man. Twenty-five women reported pressure to date or socialize with a male faculty member. Schneider (1987) suggested that her results provided support for the claim that sexual harassment is a serious problem in academia and that female graduate students are at a greater disadvantage than male graduate students. However, she never actually examined the experiences of male graduate students.

In a study of 281 graduate students (132 males, 149 females), McKinney, Olson, and Satterfield (1988) assessed their experiences with and responses to sexually harassing behavior by faculty. They found that 35% of the women and 9% of the men indicated that they had been sexually harassed while at the institution. Interestingly, graduate students were least often harassed by their major advisor. Sexist comments (29%) and "undue" attention (15%) were the most commonly reported experiences. The graduate students' most common response was to avoid professional activities with the harassing professor; for example, 30% of those who experienced sexual harassment by a faculty member avoided or dropped a class being taught by him/her. McKinney, Olson, and Satterfield (1988) concluded that sexual harassment was a serious concern for graduate students because of their power status relative to faculty.

Schneider (1987) and McKinney, Olson, and Satterfield (1988) set out to measure the prevalence of sexual harassment of graduate students. However, their assessments were incomplete. Both studies involved an examination of graduate students at a single university. Prevalence rates cannot be generalized, because different universities and colleges have different graduate programs (e.g., size, areas of study offered) and policies

against sexual harassment. Also, the researchers' focus was on perpetration by faculty. Neither study included questions about perpetration committed by other groups, such as undergraduate students, other graduate students, and staff. Finally, the researchers did not investigate other situational variables which might have differentially influenced graduate students' experiences, such as marital status and the sex-ratio of their departments.

Both studies were also methodologically flawed in two ways. First, they were not clear about their criteria for selecting items used to ascertain students' experiences with sexual harassment. Fitzgerald (1996) pointed out that most researchers of sexual harassment developed their own methodologies, often ignoring issues of reliability or validity. This creates problems in comparing results from study to study, and brings into question the accuracy of most studies of sexual harassment.

Second, McKinney and her colleagues told participants at the beginning that the study was about sexual harassment. Fitzgerald (1996) argued that because individual definitions of sexual harassment vary, asking people directly about their experiences with "harassment" can bias their responses and reduce prevalence estimates.

Other studies also examined graduate students' experiences with sexual harassment (Bauer & Green, 1996; Brooks & Perot, 1991; Cairns & Hatt, 1995). However, they were similarly limited in their scope of examination (i.e. single school populations, lack of assessment of situational factors) and/or informed participants in advance that the studies were on "sexual harassment."

In order to address the issues raised by the previous studies of the prevalence of sexual harassment, the current research involved an examination of graduate students' experiences with unwanted sexual behavior that included the following: (a) samples of graduate students from both a single university and from across the country (via the internet), (b) an assessment of the status level of the perpetrators (e.g., professor, graduate student), (c) an examination of situational factors (e.g., size of graduate student population, sex-ratio of department), (d) the utilization of a survey of experiences which meets

psychometric standards of reliability and validity, and (e) the exclusion of the term "sexual harassment" until after their experiences have been assessed.

Statistics on prevalence present a global picture of the form and frequency with which sexual harassment manifests itself within our society. For example, Clair (1994) stated that an average of 75% of women and 15% of men will be victims of sexual harassing behavior in their lifetimes. Such statistics suggest that sexual harassment is not an isolated problem perpetrated by a few deviant men and women, but rather a widespread, institutionalized social problem in which all of society's members potentially participate (Clair, 1994; French, 1985; Lips, 1991). However, prevalence statistics all too often overshadow the serious effects that sexual harassment can have on individual people.

Effects of Harassment

Victims of sexual harassment often suffer numerous behavioral and psychological consequences (e.g., Benson & Thomson, 1982; Salisbury, Ginorio, Remick, & Stringer, 1986; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997; also, see reviews by Charney & Russell, 1994 and Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997). One woman explained the long-term effects her victimization as a graduate student has had on her, "The impact of this isolated incident on me has been enormous. It has changed my way of relating to the [graduate] program. I used to think it could be a place of learning, mentoring, work, and fun. Now.... I am angry and insecure every time I'm in that building," (in Paludi & Barickman, 1991, p. 31). Such stories, along with the prevalency statistics, prompted researchers to examine the effects of sexual harassment on its victims.

The detrimental effects of sexual harassment on its victims have been repeatedly documented by researchers. Dansky and Kilpatrick (1997) cited many researchers' findings that sexual harassment in the workplace resulted in decreased job satisfaction, declined job performance, decreased motivation, interrupted careers, decreased morale, increased absenteeism, lowered productivity, and impaired relationships between co-workers. In education, sexual harassment often resulted in avoidant behavior (e.g.,

changing classes), which disrupted the academic experience. Psychological effects of harassment included decreased self-esteem and self-confidence, depression, anxiety, fear of rape, feelings of helplessness, shame, vulnerability (e.g., Salisbury et al., 1986; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997). In a review of psychiatry and psychology journals, Charney and Russell (1994) reported that 90% of victims suffered from psychological or physical symptoms, such as anger, fear, crying spells, headaches, decreased appetite, and an increased frequency of respiratory or urinary tract infections; twelve percent sought mental health care. In fact, in a clinical population of female victims' of workplace sexual harassment, Salisbury et al. (1986) observed that symptoms progressed in stages which were consistent in order: confusion and self-blame, fear and anxiety, depression and anger, and disillusionment.

In their study of sexual harassment in academia, Benson and Thomson (1982) found that the 80 undergraduate females who experienced sexual harassment reported self-doubt and loss of confidence in their academic abilities (20%) and disillusionment and cautiousness about male faculty in general (20%). Benson and Thomson (1982) also cited the costs of rejecting the professor's behavior-- lower evaluations, withdrawal of support, implicit threats. They concluded that, "the practice of sexual harassment both reflects and reinforces the devaluation of women's competence and helps erode their commitment to competitive careers," (Benson & Thomson, 1982, p. 248).

Graduate students enter their programs expecting professional guidance from mentors who are concerned about their students' welfare. However, this is often not the case. For example, in Schneider's (1987) study of graduate women, those who reported feeling pressured to socialize with or date a male faculty member were fearful of jeopardizing their careers, embarrassed, and even physically afraid.

Individuals have also told their stories. One female counseling student anonymously published (1991) her experiences with one of her professors. She was the target of long-term, systematic harassment by a man who was her instructor and a member

of her comprehensive exam committee. The professor's repeated seductive behavior compounded with his position of power over the counseling student affected her psychologically and behaviorally. The student expressed feelings of guilt and confusion and was deeply concerned about how to react to him, "I did not feel strong enough to stand up to him. Transferring to another practicum class would greatly inconvenience my family and me and would require explanation within the counseling department. Ignoring the situation seemed to be the only alternative with which I could live. I had to get on with my life; my qualifying exams were only a month away," (Anonymous, 1991, p. 503).

It is apparent that victims of sexual harassment are often deeply affected by the perpetrators' behaviors. MacKinnon (1979) stated, "sexual harassment... presents a closed system of predation in which powerlessness builds powerlessness," (p. 55). Victims' often lower power position relative to the perpetrator is reinforced when it affects the victims' physical and psychological well-being. Sexual harassment becomes a vicious cycle of victimization, even after the perpetrator's behavior has ceased.

The research on the effects of sexual harassment is fairly extensive. However, one serious oversight exists. No one has examined how sexual harassment affects male victims. It should not be assumed that men and women are affected in the same way by their victimization. Therefore, the sex of the participants was examined as a possible factor in the reported effects of unwanted sexual attention.

Responses to Harassment

Victims must not only deal with the personal effects of sexual harassment, but they also make decisions about how to deal with the perpetrators and their behavior. Several researchers attempted to assess the nature and form of victims' responses to sexual harassment (see review by Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997). Some researchers focused upon victims' behavioral responses (e.g., degree of assertiveness) and examined severity based upon the nature of a single act (e.g., mild: sexual remark, severe: assault).

Most of the published theories of victim response were based upon people's hypothetical responses (i.e. how would you react if....). Few researchers accounted for actual victims' reactions, even though actual victims' reactions are very different from naive participants' hypothesized reactions (Fitzgerald, 1993; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Smirles, Davey, & Czarnecki, 1997). For example, Smirles (1995) found that approximately 98% of 398 male and female participants responded that they would take direct action against the perpetrator if faced with quid pro quo sexual harassment. Yet, most cases of sexual harassment go unreported (Fitzgerald, 1993; also see review by Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997). It is far easier to state that you would report the perpetrator if you were sexually harassed than to actually take such action in a real situation.

Researchers found that the most prevalent responses by victims to sexual harassment were indirect or passive in nature, rather than direct or active (e.g., Benson & Thomson, 1982; Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997; Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997). Common responses included ignoring the perpetrator's behavior, redirecting conversation away from personal topics, bringing a friend to a meeting, leaving door open during meeting, mentioning existence of significant other, sitting or standing at a safe distance, and avoiding classes/meetings (Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997). In their study of undergraduate females, Benson and Thomson (1982) found that many participants reported employing behaviors aimed at avoiding private interactions with the professor, while only a few students reported directly complaining to a professor. Furthermore, researchers have consistently found that only a small percentage of women ever filed formal complaints (as cited in Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997: Gutek, 1985 - 18%; Gruber & Bjorn, 1982 - 7%; Fitzgerald, 1988 - 5%; Terpestra & Bacon, 1988 - 1%). Schneider (1987) found that out of her sample of 214 female graduate students who reported experiencing sexual harassment, only three women filed formal complaints against the male faculty member. Tangri, Burt, and Johnson (1982) found that men also rarely took any

formal action against the perpetrator. Therefore, passive reactions to sexual harassment may not be solely due to the socialization of women to be submissive.

An obvious factor that could influence a victim's response is whether or not she/he even considers the behavior of the perpetrator to be inappropriate and/or illegal. Magley and DeNardo (1996) argued that at least 50% of women in the workplace experience sexual harassment according to the legal definition, yet less than 20% label it as such.

Brooks and Perot (1991) postulated that for a woman to report sexual harassment, she must perceive the behavior to be serious or offensive; she does not necessarily have to label the behavior as "sexual harassment." In a sample of 214 tenure-track women faculty and 276 women graduate students, perceived offensiveness was a significant predictor of reporting, and frequency of behavior and feminist ideology predicted perceived offensiveness. Women with stronger feminist beliefs and greater experiences with unwanted sexual behavior were more likely than other women to perceive their experiences as offensive; in turn, these women were more likely to report their harassment. Fitzgerald, Swan, and Magley (1997) also found that gender-based attitudes were related to women's labeling of their experiences. Specifically, women's feminist beliefs and sex role identity influenced whether or not they labeled their experiences as harassing; women who were feminists and/or had a non-traditional sex role identity were more likely to consider the perpetrator's behavior to constitute sexual harassment.[5]

Fitzgerald, Swan, and Fischer (1995) argued that labeling behavior is not the only predictor of reporting harassment. They proposed a model that is based upon actual victims' accounts, as well as their cognitions (i.e. why did they behave in a certain manner?). Their model goes beyond stimulus-based severity models to include frequency, duration, perceptions, and individual factors in determining psychological severity. Fitzgerald, Swan, and Fischer (1995) argued that it is the victim's cognitive appraisal of the situation which should be the focus of research (e.g., Did the victim not report the harasser because his behavior didn't bother her, or because she was in fear of reprisal?). There are

two stages to this appraisal process. Primary cognitive appraisal involves the perception of the perpetrator's behavior as being stressful to the victim or not (e.g., Was this sexual harassment?). If the behavior is perceived as being stressful, secondary cognitive appraisal involves the victim deciding how to respond to the behavior (e.g., Should I ignore it or report it?).

Fitzgerald, Swan, and Fischer's (1995) model is reflective of a stress coping approach to understanding victims' responses. Their model represents constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage external and internal demands (also see Lazarus, 1993). In addition, it recognizes the interaction of personal factors (e.g., personal characteristics, internalized cultural values and beliefs) with situational constraints (e.g., organizational practices). Assessments of victims' responses to sexual harassment should include measures of both person and situation factors.

The research on victims' responses to sexual harassment to date is incomplete. Once again, men's experiences and responses have not been assessed. Furthermore, while Fitzgerald, Swan, and Fischer (1995) presented strong, theoretical arguments for their stress and coping model, there has been no empirical test of it. Therefore, the current research included a comparative analysis of men's and women's labeling behavior and the possible influences of attitudes and/or coping strategies.[6]

Research on Perpetrators: Victims' Accounts

Most of what is known about perpetrators of sexual harassment is based upon the reports of their victims. Tangri, Burt, and Johnson's (1982) analysis of the USMSPB sample found that (a) 78% of the reported victims of sexual harassment were harassed by males (95% of female victims, 22% of male victims); (b) females victims were most often harassed by married men (67%), while males were slightly more likely to be harassed by someone who was single; (c) victims (63% females, 68% males) were typically harassed by someone of the same ethnicity; (d) female victims' harassers were older than them (68%), but male victims' harassers were often younger (38%); and (e) co-workers were

most likely the perpetrators (65% female victims, 76% male victims), but females were more likely harassed by superior (37%) than males (14%). Tangri, Burt and Johnson (1982) concluded that the, "sexual harassment of women conforms more to a model suggesting intimidation, while that of men conforms more to a model suggesting attraction (whether or not this is reciprocated)," (p. 45). In other words, men and women were harassed for different reasons. One way to further understand why this might be is to examine the perpetrators themselves.

Research on Perpetrators: Proclivities or Actualities?

A few researchers examined people as potential perpetrators of sexual harassment. John Pryor (1985, 1987) and his colleagues (Pryor & Day, 1988; Pryor, LaVite, & Stoller, 1993) have sought to discover what type of man was most likely to commit sexual harassment, and under what conditions he would do so. Pryor developed the Likelihood to Sexually Harass scale (LSH; Pryor, 1987) based upon a scale created by Malamuth (1981) to assess males' proclivity to commit rape. Pryor's procedure involved asking male participants to imagine themselves in 10 different social situations in which they have opportunities to sexually exploit women without fear of reprisal. For each scenario, the males were asked to rate the likelihood of using power for sexual gain. The following is an example scenario used by Pryor (1987):

> "Imagine you are the owner of a modeling agency. Your agency specializes in sexy female models used in television commercials. One of your models, Amy T., is a particularly ravishing brunette. You stop her after work one day and ask her to have dinner with you. She coldly declines your offer and tells you that she would like to keep your relationship with her 'strictly business'. A few months later you find that business is slack and you have to lay off some of your employees. You can choose to lay off Amy or one of four other women. All are good models, but someone has to go. How likely are you to do the following things in this situation?"

The critical question for this scenario was phrased, "Assuming that you are unafraid of possible reprisals, would you offer to let Amy keep her job in return for sexual favors?" (responded to on a five point likert scale). Although the term "sexual harassment" never appeared in the LSH scale, respondents' ratings essentially represented the likelihood of performing acts of quid pro quo sexual harassment.

In the first studies using the LSH scale, Pryor (1987) found that the LSH score positively and significantly correlated with sex-role stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs, acceptance of interpersonal violence, rape myth acceptance, likelihood to rape, fantasy, and (lack of) perspective taking. Thus, there appeared to be strong support for the notion that there is a "type" of man who is more likely to sexually harass when he has some level of power over a woman. However, Pryor has yet to explore the proclivities of women to sexually harass.

Bartling and Eisenman (1993) examined the sexual harassment proclivities of 222 college men (n = 60) and women (n = 162). Similar to Pryor's (1987) research findings, men and women's likelihood to sexually harass was significantly related to sex-role stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs, acceptance of interpersonal violence, rape myth acceptance, likelihood to rape, fantasy, and (lack of) perspective taking. Bartling and Eisenman (1993) concluded that personality profiles for people likely to perpetrate sexual harassment were similar for men and women. Specifically, they suggested that adversarial sexual beliefs and weak empathy skills may predispose people to sexually harass, and their scale could more accurately assess people's proclivities than Pryor's LSH scale.

No empirical research has been published on actual perpetrators of sexual harassment (e.g., Charney & Russell, 1994). Since so few victims report the perpetrator, it is difficult to track down and identify that population. Additionally, perpetrators are not likely to identify themselves as such if they feel that they could be held accountable for their actions. If willing participants are found, repeatedly asking questions about perpetrating behavior could create a defensive feeling on the part of the participant, possibly reducing the honesty of his/her responses. However, many perpetrators may not consider their behavior to be morally or legally wrong. Taking these factors into account, the current assessment of actual perpetrators' behavior included the following measures: (a) the use of confidential surveys, (b) the exclusion of the term "sexual harassment" from the survey until the end, and (c) the inclusion of items related to other issues (e.g., attitudes, own

victimization). This approach was expected to yield more extensive and reliable information about actual perpetrators of sexual harassment.

Graduate Students: Perpetrators of Harassment

While graduate students are obvious targets of sexual harassment, they also often serve as instructors or teaching assistants, working in a position of power over undergraduate students. Therefore, graduate students may be just as likely as faculty members to sexually harass their students. The "double-bind" of graduate students as students and teachers creates a complex situation of blurred boundaries and power differentials. However, the current research was the first to examine graduate students as perpetrators of sexual harassment.

Theoretical Models of Sexual Harassment: A Guide for Experience Assessment

A great deal of research has explored the experience of sexual harassment from the victims' perspective, and some researchers have attempted to tap the psyche of the potential perpetrator. With each study, different researchers often utilized different methodologies and examined different facets of people's experience with sexual harassment (e.g., behavioral effects, psychological effects). Such diverse approaches, however, make comparison across studies problematic (Fitzgerald, 1996). A possible answer to this problem lies in causal models of sexual harassment, which can provide a more coherent picture of sexual harassment and a more theoretical basis for research on experiences. Therefore, a brief review of the major causal models of sexual harassment is necessary to develop a focus of factors to examine in research.

Natural/Biological Model

The natural/biological model assumes that sexual behavior is the result of "natural" human drives and denies the discriminatory intention of this behavior (Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982; also see review by Tangri & Hayes, 1997). Such a model would predict that there are no negative consequences for the recipient of sexual behavior in the

workplace. However, the often severe and harmful consequences of sexually harassing behavior (Charney & Russell, 1994; Crull, 1991) negate the validity of this theory.

Organizational Model

Consistent with the phrase "power corrupts," the organizational model assumes that people will abuse their power status to attain sexual gratification from his/her subordinates (Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982; Tangri & Hayes, 1997). Therefore, both men and women could be perpetrators of sexual harassment. Additionally, the lower status of women in the job market relative to men offers an explanation as to why women are most often the victims of sexual harassment. Subordinates do not have the resources (e.g., economic, job security) to assertively deal with sexual harassment (MacKinnon, 1979). The organizational model provides an explanation of sexual harassment based upon situational factors. However, this approach neglects to account for the individual factors (e.g., proclivity to sexually harass) involved in sexual harassment.

Socio-Cultural Model

Unlike the preceding models, a socio-cultural approach assumes that sexual harassment is the result of the differential socialization of men and women in a society, rather than a biological difference or a workplace phenomenon. MacKinnon (1979) originally argued that sexual harassment is one manifestation of our patriarchal culture. Sexual harassment is an omnipresent attempt by those in power to maintain their position (e.g., French, 1985; Lips, 1991; MacKinnon, 1979). This cycle is perpetuated by societal attitudes, which condone perpetrators' behavior and inhibit victims from resisting or responding. While the socio-cultural model addresses the societal prevalence of sexual harassment, it ignores both immediate context and the individual predictors of sexual harassment.

Sex-Role Spillover Model

Sex-role spillover is, "the carryover into the workplace of gender-based roles that are usually irrelevant or inappropriate to work," (Gutek & Morasch, 1982, p. 56). "Sex-

roles" represent a set of expectations about the behavior of men and women (e.g., women as submissive, men as aggressive). "Work-roles" are those expected behaviors related to the accomplishment of job tasks. Gutek and Morasch (1982) state that sex-role spillover occurs for several reasons: (a) the sex-role may be more salient cognitively than the work-role, (b) women may feel more comfortable with their sex-role, especially if they will be more accepted by males that way, and (c) men are more used to interacting with women outside of the work environment as wives, mothers, etc. and feel more comfortable with viewing women in these roles. Similar to the organizational model, this final reason suggests that skewed sex-ratios in the workplace are associated with sex-role spillover and sexual harassment. The sex-role spillover model addresses how situational constraints of the workplace can play a critical role in the expression of sex roles.

Person-Situation Model

Unlike previous models, Pryor's (1987) person-situation model of sexual harassment accounts for both person and situational factors. He strongly argued that sexual harassment results from both the proclivity of a perpetrator to commit sexual harassment and the situational constraints (e.g., social norms). Someone who is more likely to sexually harass would not do so unless he believed that he could get away with it. Therefore, the role of the organizational climate in fostering sexual harassment is critical.

Pryor's (1987) person-situation interaction theory has been supported by his subsequent research (e.g., Pryor, Giedd, & Williams, 1995; Pryor, LaVite, & Stoller, 1993; Pryor & Stoller, 1994, also see review in Pryor & Whalen, 1997). Wilson and Herrnstein (1985) argued that theories which focus on either psychological or social explanations for crime ignore the importance of the other. Often, there exists a reciprocal relationship between the person and the situation. Pryor's research demonstrated this interaction. An assessment of perpetration of sexual harassment should thus include measures of both person (proclivity to sexually harass) and situation (work climate, sex-ratio) factors.

Four-Factor Model

Grundman and O'Donohue (in Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997) proposed a four-factor model which is based upon Finkelhor's (1984) four-precondition model of sexual abuse. Grundman and O'Donohue's model describes four "preconditions" necessary for sexual harassment: (a) the perpetrator's motivation to harass, (b) the perpetrator's ability to overcome internal inhibitions, (c) the perpetrator's opportunity to overcome environmental inhibitors to his behavior, and (d) the perpetrator's ability to overcome the victim's potential resistance.

While largely unexamined empirically, the four-factor model accounts for both the person and situational factors influencing sexual harassment. It goes beyond Pryor's person-situation (1987) model by addressing more general person factors (i.e. motivations) than the LSH scale and including the victim as an active determining factor in whether sexual harassment even occurs. It remains to be seen whether the four-factor model can be empirically supported.

Model-Based Factors for Analysis

The causal models of sexual harassment are all framed in terms of why perpetration occurs. This is an important question for researchers, however, the current research was not dealing with that specific issue. The focus of the current research project was on what factors predict and/or influence graduate students' experiences as victims and perpetrators of unwanted sexual behavior. One of the goals was to create a picture of the phenomenon of sexual harassment in graduate school (i.e. the incidence of victimization and perpetration, who is experiencing and committing such behaviors, how are people responding to their experiences), rather than looking at only isolated elements of the phenomenon (e.g., victimization or perpetration). While the causal models of sexual harassment do not directly address the current research goals, they could provide important clues as to what variables would provide the most comprehensive picture of the dynamics of sexual harassment.

Based upon a critical review of the causal models, the following factors were included for analysis in the current research: the sex-ratio of the workplace, the sex and status level of the victims and perpetrators, participants' attitudes towards sexual harassment, and their proclivity to sexually harass. Each of these factors have been suggested by researchers in the earlier literature review. However, the causal models now provide a theoretical grounding to the current research direction on graduate students' experiences and perceptions concerning sexual harassment.

Sexual Harassment Prevention: Program Evaluation

The high prevalence of sexual harassment and its detrimental effects on victims emphasize the need to develop educational programs aimed at preventing it, "...sensitization and education are the first steps toward bridging the gap between prevalence and reporting statistics," (Charney & Russell, 1994, p. 13). Since high profile cases, such as Anita Hill, the Navy Tailhook scandal, and Paula Jones, numerous educational programs have been developed and implemented all over the country. Preventing sexual harassment is a complex endeavor. Discussion surrounding sexual harassment often fosters anxiety, defensiveness, and misunderstanding, because it challenges widely held beliefs about sexual relationships that support men's privileged position in society (Lott, 1996). Men do not want to be viewed as evil, malicious perpetrators, and women do not want to be put in the role of the helpless victim. Therefore, programs aimed at prevention must not simply inform, but also confront people's belief systems without alienating them. Prevention programs must increase people's knowledge and decrease their tolerance for sexual harassment if it is to be eliminated from society.

After an extensive review of the research literature, Grundman, O'Donohue, and Peterson (1997) concluded that, "no one has published an empirical evaluation of the effectiveness of any company policy or educational program to reduce sexually harassing attitudes or behaviors," (p. 176) (also see Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1993). Despite the

preponderance of sexual harassment educational programs and techniques, it is unclear as to whether they have beneficial or possibly even detrimental effects.

The lack of outcome assessment is potentially dangerous for two reasons: (1) the naive assumption that prevention efforts can only have beneficial or neutral effects ignores the potential for harmful repercussions; and (2) the initiation of prevention programs creates the potentially false sense of security that people do not have to worry about being sexually harassed (Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997). Similar concerns recently prompted the assessment of rape prevention programs.

Lonsway (1996) critically reviewed a variety of rape prevention programs aimed at decreasing the incidence of sexual aggression by changing rape-supportive beliefs; for inclusion in this review, studies had to include some form of outcome assessment. A serious methodological problem was that most evaluations relied solely on attitudinal assessment immediately after the prevention program (i.e. no long-term component) and focused on participants' "satisfaction" with the program. Such approaches cannot assess true changes in beliefs or behavior of participants. More disturbing, however, was the discovery that some studies aimed at reducing men's rape-supportive attitudes by inducing empathy towards the victim actually had the reverse effect. For example, Berg, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1997) conducted a workshop for 54 college males emphasizing the role of empathy in attitude change. After receiving basic educational instruction on acquaintance rape and empathy, participants listened to an audiotape of either a young woman or man describing her/his rape experience. Males instructed to empathize with the female rape victim actually reported greater likelihood of sexual aggression afterwards. This finding brings into question the ethics of conducting rape prevention programs without adequate outcome assessments.

While rape and sexual harassment are not typically behaviorally similar, it has been argued by several theorists (e.g., MacKinnon, 1979; Quina, 1996) that rape and sexual harassment are both expressions of power, not sexuality. Both are perpetuated by the same

societal attitudes and norms which endorse the subjugation of those without power (typically women) by those with power (typically men). Therefore, sexual harassment prevention programs also run the risk of increasing the problem. For example, most educational programs inform people that sexual harassment is underreported. Potential perpetrators might get the message that they are likely to get away with harassing others. The current research represented the first attempt to conduct an outcome assessment of a sexual harassment education program.

Grundman, O'Donohue, and Peterson (1997) put forth several methodological considerations which should be accounted for in sexual harassment prevention program outcome assessment, including the use of appropriate comparison groups, employment of relevant and psychometrically sound measures, assessment of potential negative effects, assessment of social validity of the intervention and use of consumer satisfaction measures, measurement of participant and work environment variables, analysis of potential subject-treatment interactions, and measurements of generalization across settings and time. Taking an experimental attitude is the only way to accurately and unambiguously assess prevention program outcomes.

Utilizing Theory of Attitude Change to Develop An Educational Program

The goal of the current research project was to assess whether a standard education program changed graduate students' knowledge and/or attitudes concerning sexual harassment. Theoretical models of attitude change provide valid and reliable approaches to persuasion.

Everyday we are bombarded with messages which try to persuade us to change our attitudes toward certain objects, e.g., candidates running for election, new consumer products. These messages often take various forms (e.g., emotional vs. cognitive information). More importantly, messages are successful in persuading some people but not others. A great deal of research on attitudes has focused specifically on determining what factors influence the persuasion process. In the 1950s, researchers at Yale University

determined that three basic elements are common to all persuasion situations: the source, the message, and the receiver; they summarized this idea with the statement, "Who says what to whom?" (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953). An understanding of each of these elements and their interactions with one another must be achieved before the persuasion process can truly be understood.

The Source

The effect of the source on persuasion is typically mediated by three variables: credibility, attractiveness, and similarity. Research has found that people are more likely to accept information from a credible source. Experts are typically viewed as being credible sources; a talk on land conservation is more influential when coming from an expert speaker (possessing a degree in geology) than a non-expert speaker (with a French degree) (Wood & Kallgren, 1988). Trustworthy individuals are also more likely to be considered credible, since it is believed that they will convey unbiased, objective information. Kelman and Hovland (1953) had participants listen to a speech arguing for more lenient treatment of juvenile delinquents; when the source was a judge, participants were more likely to change their attitudes than when a drug dealer presented the argument. Sexual harassment educational programs should be conducted by someone who is considered knowledgeable about the issue and trustworthy.

While not necessarily representing valid information about the source, attractiveness has also been found to have a significant influence on persuasion. Wood and Kallgren's (1988) study also investigated this effect. When the attractiveness of the speaker arguing for environmental preservation was manipulated, they found that participants who were uninformed on the issue were more persuaded by an attractive speaker than a non-attractive one; knowledgeable participants were convinced by the soundness of the argument (i.e. the content of the message), and not the superficial qualities of the speaker. When people are not able to make as informed a decision without excessive cognitive investment, they are more likely to rely on peripheral or heuristic cues of the source (i.e. attractiveness) to guide

their processing and evaluation of the message. However, Chaiken (1979) argued that attractive people are actually better persuaders than less attractive people; attractive speakers in her study were found to be more confident, articulate, and better communicators. Since judgments of attractiveness are so subjective, particularly cross-culturally, manipulating and/or controlling for this variable is problematic.

The final source variable, similarity, refers to the degree to which the receiver perceives him/herself as resembling the source. One area where similarity can exist is in group membership. Mackie, Worth, and Asuncion (1990) had students at the University of California at Santa Barbara read a speech arguing against standardized testing. When participants believed that the author was a UCSB student (in-group), they were more convinced by strong than weak arguments. However, when the author was a UNH student (out-group), participants were not convinced by the argument; the strength of message did not have an effect on their judgments. The more similar the target perceives him/herself to the source, the more likely he/she will be persuaded.

The Message

In order for a message to be convincing, Hovland et al. (1953) argued that it must be understandable, convincing, and memorable. Several variables which could influence the effectiveness of the persuasive message have been investigated. In examining the persuasion process, Petty and Cacioppo's (1984) Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) and Chaiken's (1980) Heuristic-Systematic Model (HSM) both postulated two routes to persuasion; the central or systematic route involves careful, conscious processing of the message, while the peripheral or heuristic route involves a more superficial processing by relying on peripheral cues or mental short-cuts. If people are engaged in central route or systematic processing, strong arguments are more likely to persuade them than weak ones; through careful analysis of the message, these people have determined the strength, and thus the validity of the argument. However, not everyone engages in this systematic process for several reasons (e.g., lack of ability or personal relevance). These individuals

utilize the peripheral or heuristic route, focusing on extraneous information (e.g., attractiveness) or mental shortcuts (e.g., previous experience) when judging a persuasive message.

Petty and Cacioppo (1984) investigated the idea that personal relevance can affect the route (central vs. peripheral) people take. Participants read an essay calling for the requirement of seniors to pass a comprehensive examination before graduating. Personal relevance was manipulated by informing the participants that either such a requirement would be implemented immediately (high relevance) or not for several years (low relevance). In addition, (a) the essay contained either strong (e.g., "Graduate and professional schools show a preference for undergraduates who have passed a comprehensive exam.") or weak (e.g., "Most of my friends support the proposal.") arguments, and (b) the number of arguments listed was varied (3 to 9). They found that students who were personally involved listed more positive thoughts about the argument when the message was strong, and more negative thoughts when it was weak; the researchers concluded that these participants were engaged in more active processing and analysis of the information. On the other hand, participants in the low relevance condition were more influenced by the number of arguments than their strength; quantity was equated with quality- a characteristic of the peripheral route. In general, Petty and Cacioppo (1984) concluded that argument quality had the biggest impact on people who were systematically processing the message.

Another message variable which has been investigated is the use of message repetition. Evidence from a variety of sources (e.g., Zajonc's mere exposure, 1965) suggested that repeated exposure to an object lead to a greater liking of it. Petty and Cacioppo (1979) supported this theory by demonstrating that as participants were repeatedly presented with a message, they developed more positive perceptions of the argument. However, repetition was found to be effective to a certain point; if a message was repeated too many times (i.e. five times/hour), agreement with the message decreased

and counter-arguing increased. Using multiple forms of media (e.g., handouts, group discussion) repeatedly exposes participants to the issue of sexual harassment; this approach may be more effective than the presenter simply repeating the same message.

The Receiver

Finally, receiver (i.e. audience) variables have been found to influence the persuasion process. The sex of the receiver has been the focus of a great deal of research. Eagly (1978) reviewed 62 persuasion studies and determined that although there was a tendency for women to be more persuadable (in 16% of the studies) than men (2%), the majority of the studies (82%) found no difference. Several explanations have been posited to account for the sex difference findings. Eagly (1978) suggested that most cultures stress gender roles which support independence for men and concession for women (also see Eagly, 1987). She also argued that methodological problems may exaggerate the magnitude of sex differences; most of the studies examined masculine issues and were conducted by male experimenters, placing the women at a disadvantage. Women and men may use their public opinions for different ends. Women may tend to agree with arguments to appear cooperative, while men disagree in order to appear independent. Tuthill and Forsyth (1982) found that women are more likely to change their attitudes to match the opinions of their partners as a self-presentation strategy.

With sexual harassment prevention programming, there may be a confound between persuasion research and that of sex differences in defining sexual harassment. Women may be more easily persuaded than men because of the personal relevance of sexual harassment to them. Yet, women may not be further persuaded because they are already aware of the issue. Finally, if men are less easily persuaded, and they minimize harassment, sexual harassment educators are faced with a particularly tough dilemma. Since men are typically the perpetrators of sexual harassment, they are the most critical audience to educate. Any prevention program should attempt to account for the differences

between audience members (i.e. sex) by (a) making the issue relevant for everyone and (b) addressing all audience members' questions and concerns.

Another receiver variable which has been explored in persuasion research is self-monitoring. Self-monitoring refers to the extent to which someone observes, regulates, and controls his/her own public behavior across situations (Snyder, 1974, 1987). High self-monitors, "monitor or control the images of self they project in social interaction to a great extent," (Snyder, 1987, p. 5); they are essentially "social chameleons," adjusting their behavior to fit the expectations of the situation. Low self-monitors, on the other hand, "value congruence between who they are and what they do," (p. 5); their behavior is more consistent across situations. Snyder and DeBono (1985) explored whether people's level of self-monitoring influenced the effects of a persuasive message on them. In two studies, participants were presented with advertisements for various products (i.e. whisky, cigarettes, and coffee) which contained either image-based (e.g. "Make a chilly night become a cozy evening with Irish Mocha Mint") or quality-based (e.g., "Irish Mocha Mint: A delicious blend of three great flavors-- coffee, chocolate, and mint") slogans. In a third study, people were presented over the phone with either an image-based (i.e. make hair look good) or quality-based (i.e. leave hair clean) advertisement for shampoo and asked if they would be willing to try the product.

Snyder and DeBono (1985) found that self-monitoring did affect people's level of persuasion. High self-monitors reacted more favorably to image ads (demands of the situation), and low self-monitors preferred quality ads (personal tastes and preferences) (study 1). High self-monitors were willing to pay more money for products with image ads, and low-self monitors were more willing to pay for products with quality ads (study 2). Finally, high self-monitors were more willing to try the shampoo that would make their hair look good, while low self-monitors preferred the shampoo that would leave their hair clean.

Self-monitoring indicates people's likelihood to alter their behavior in public. Since sexual harassment is a social issue often associated with the current trend of "politically correct" behavior, self-monitoring would seem to be an important factor to explore in assessing the effectiveness of sexual harassment education programs.

The research investigating the variables which affect persuasion is extensive and fairly conclusive, although several variables can shift over time and situations (e.g., sex of receiver). Therefore, constructing a persuasive message is a complex procedure, requiring careful consideration of all the factors involved- source, message, and receiver.

Based upon the review of the attitude change literature, the program that was utilized in the current research incorporated the variables found in the persuasion literature to best facilitate attitude change. The presenters were credible (i.e. Affirmative Action Officer) and similar to the audience (i.e. graduate student). The program included strong arguments concerning the seriousness of sexual harassment (e.g., legal definitions), an emphasis on the personal relevance of the issue to the audience through the use of scenarios and personal stories, and the repetition of sexual harassment issues using handouts and discussion. The audience consisted of male and female graduate students, and their tendencies to self-monitor were assessed. This and other information about the audience (i.e. demographics, attitudes toward and experiences with sexual harassment) was used to determine whether the source and message had differential effects on different groups of graduate students.

Present Research

Sexual harassment is a serious social problem affecting thousands of men and women every year. In the past decade, many researchers have examined this phenomenon within academia. However, their focus has often been limited to undergraduate students and faculty, and little has been done to examine actual perpetrators of sexual harassment. Graduate students' unique position in the university hierarchy as both students and teachers makes them easy targets of sexual harassment and provides them with the opportunity to

harass others. The purpose of the first study was to examine (a) how graduate students defined sexual harassment and (b) their experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment at a medium-sized northeastern university. In order to get a more representative sample of graduate students around the United States, I surveyed graduate students via the internet in the second study.

In the third study, I assessed the immediate and long-term effectiveness of a sexual harassment awareness program being conducted for new graduate assistants at the University of New Hampshire. For the last two decades, sexual harassment educators have attempted to eliminate sexual harassment from our society without knowing whether their techniques were even effective. Before social change can take place, the validity and effectiveness of the tools of change must be determined. Outcome assessment is perhaps the most pertinent goal for sexual harassment researchers and educators.

II. STUDY 1

Graduate students' definitions of and experiences with sexual harassment are of important concern if we are to determine how to prevent the harassment committed against and perpetrated by them. The dual power role of graduate students as students and teachers presents researchers with a unique opportunity for examining the phenomenon of sexual harassment. In order to examine graduate students' perceptions and experiences, the following hypotheses were proposed:

1. Based upon the research on sex differences in labeling sexual harassment and the minimization-maximization model, it was expected sex would be a significant predictor of labeling behavior. Specifically, females would label more behaviors as constituting sexual harassment than males. Differences between men and women's judgments were expected to be more pronounced for potentially hostile environment sexual harassment than for quid pro quo sexual harassment behaviors.

2. People who have more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment would label more behaviors as harassment. In addition, Kenig and Ryan's (1986) argument for the minimization-maximization model suggests that women would have more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment than men.

3. Participant sex would predict the frequency of victimization; women would report more experiences with victimization than men.

4. Participants would most likely be victimized by those with a higher or equal power status than those with a lower status. Since feminist theorists (e.g., MacKinnon, 1979) argue that men have a higher power status within society relative to women, it was specifically predicted that women would be more likely to be harassed by people at any power level, higher (professor), equal (graduate student), or lower (undergraduate

student). Men, on the other hand, would be more likely to be harassed by someone with a higher power status.

5. The sex-ratio of the participants' departments and their marital status would be significant predictors of victimization frequency. Participants who are single and/or work in a department dominated by the opposite sex would most often victimized.

6. Sex would be a significant predictor of the consequences of and responses to victimization. Female victims would be more likely to suffer from psychological and behavioral symptoms than male victims. Female victims would be more likely to take indirect action, while male victims would be more likely to take direct action against the perpetrator.

7. People who rely on active coping strategies would be likely to take direct action against the perpetrator; people who rely on avoidant strategies would be likely to take indirect action.

8. Based upon the accounts of victims and potential perpetrators of sexual harassment, it was expected that participants who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior would most likely be male and married, possess a higher power status than the victim (e.g., teacher-student), have higher proclivities to harass, and be more tolerant of sexual harassment. However, because of the differential power status of men and women in society, it is further predicted that females would be most likely to harass people of a lower power status, while males would harass those of a lower or equal status.

Method

Participant Recruitment and Contact

A list of graduate assistants at the University of New Hampshire and their campus addresses was obtained from the Graduate School. The following criteria were used for sample selection: (a) students had to currently be on assistantship (teaching or research) at the University of New Hampshire, and (b) did not participate in a specific orientation program on sexual harassment (i.e. were not participants in Study 3). The graduate

students were mailed an envelope through campus mail to their department mail boxes. The envelope contained an informed consent form, the survey, an addressed survey return envelope, and an addressed postcard.

The informed consent was in the form of a letter from the experimenter (see Appendix A). The letter informed graduate students that the survey was part of "...an extensive study of interpersonal behavior in the academic workplace, both here and across the country. The purpose of this project is to assess people's experiences and attitudes toward such interactions."

Graduate students were then informed of a lottery for $100 being conducted for those who elected to participate in the study. To enter the lottery, participants were told to put their name, local address, and home phone number on the postcard and send it via campus mail at the same time they mailed their survey. To reassure the graduate students that the surveys were anonymous and confidential, there were separate return addresses for the survey and postcard; surveys went to the experimenter's department mail box, and postcards went to a mail box in the Memorial Union Building (i.e. not affiliated with any department or office on campus). The experimenter's home phone number and e-mail address were also included in the informed consent letter to allow participants to ask any questions concerning the survey.

Procedure

Participants completed a survey which assessed their experiences and perceptions concerning sexual harassment. First, they answered questions about basic demographical variables and socializing habits (i.e. who they spent time with and/or dated) (Appendix B). Next, participants responded to questions about their experiences as victims and perpetrators of specific behaviors of unwanted sexual activity (Appendix C), including experience frequency (yes, no) and information about the person(s) involved (i.e. sex, power status). They were then asked to indicate which of the behaviors constituted "sexual harassment." With regards to their own victimization experiences with unwanted sexual

behavior, participants completed a check-list of possible consequences of their experiences (e.g., anxiety, anger) and responses to the perpetrator(s) (e.g., told a friend, avoided the person) (Appendix D). Participants were then asked to define sexual harassment "as they understood it", and to indicate their previous experience with sexual harassment education programs (Appendix E) and general awareness of university policies and procedures regarding sexual harassment (Appendix F). Finally, participants completed measures of their general coping strategies (Appendix G), attitudes toward sexual harassment (Appendix H), and proclivities to sexually harass (Appendix I).

Participants were told to return the surveys and postcards by December 15th (approximately three weeks after they received the surveys). From the postcards received, a winner was drawn two days after the deadline and notified by phone. Debriefing forms were mailed to all graduate students on December 29th, 1997 (Appendix J).

Measures

Sexual Experiences Questionnaire. The Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ: Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1985) is a 28-item self-report measure which asks about previous experience with behaviors constituting sexual harassment (Appendix C). These behaviors fit along a continuum ranging from suggestive comments and jokes to rape. For each item, subjects were asked to circle the response most closely describing their own experience ("Never", "Once", or "More than once"). If they had experienced with the particular behavior, subjects then indicate the sex of the individual who committed those behaviors by circling the appropriate response ("Male", "Female", or "Both"). The SEQ has been found to be a reliable scale (standardized alpha = .88, reported by Smirles, 1995).

For the purposes of this research project, the SEQ was slightly modified in structure. The SEQ was originally designed to assess people's experiences as victims. Since one of the goals of this study was to assess graduate students' experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment, the modified SEQ (SEQ-M) included parallel

questions about victimization and perpetration (e.g., ".. an individual made sexist remarks?" versus "... you made sexist remarks?"). The SEQ-M consisted of 56 items.

Another goal of this study was to examine the power status of the participants' perpetrators and victims. Therefore, for each item on the SEQ-M, participants indicated the status of the person(s) involved (i.e. professor, graduate student, undergraduate student, or other).

Coping Strategies Scale. Holahan and Moos (1987) developed a measure of people's general coping strategies (Appendix G). Respondents were asked to think of the most important problem they had faced in the last year and indicate how often they utilized each of the 32 strategies listed on a scale from 0 (not at all) to 3 (fairly often). The Coping Strategies Scale (CSS) consists of three sub-scales: (1) active-cognitive strategies (11-items) (e.g., "Prayed for guidance or strength," "Tried to step back from the situation and be more objective"), (2) active-behavioral strategies (13-items) (e.g., "Tried to find out more about the situation," "Made a plan of action and followed it"), and (3) avoidance-oriented strategies (8-items) (e.g., "Took it out on other people when I felt angry or depressed," "Refused to believe that it happened"). Scores for each sub-scale are the sums of the respective item scores. Holahan and Moos (1987) reported Cronbach alphas of .62 (active-cognitive scale), .74 (active-behavioral scale), and .60 (avoidance scale).

Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment. The Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment scale (ATSH; Mazer & Percival, 1989) is a 19-item scale answered on a 5-point Likert scale (Appendix H). Items are statements reflecting attitudes about sexual harassment. The ATSH extends the 10-item Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (TSHI; Lott, Reilly, & Howard, 1982; Reilly, Lott, & Gallogly, 1986). The nine additional items were selected because they enhanced scale reliability and broadened the assessment of participants' knowledge of sexual harassment; these items evaluated contemporary feminist conceptualizations of harassment (e.g., "Sexual harassment has little to do with power") and definitions of harassment (e.g., "A lot of what people call sexual harassment is just

normal flirtation between men and women"). Six items were developed by Mazer and Percival and three were taken from the sexual harassment attitude survey developed by Beauvais (1986). The ATSH has been shown to be a more reliable measure (coefficient alpha = .84) than the TSHI (alpha = .75). Higher scores on the ATSH indicate more acceptance and tolerance of sexual harassment and less agreement with contemporary feminist understandings of its cause.

Proclivity to Sexually Harass. Bartling and Eisenman's (1993) Proclivity to Sexually Harass (PSH) scale is a 10-item self-report measure of men's and women's likelihood of committing sexual harassment (Appendix I). (Pryor's (1987) LSH scale is lengthy and designed to assess only men's sexual harassment proclivities.) Respondents indicate their extent of agreement (disagreement) to each statement on a 5-point likert scale (1 - "strongly disagree" to 5 - "strongly agree"). Statements were constructed to reflect the EEOC (1980) definition that sexual harassment consists of unwanted sexual attention (e.g., "Women are flattered by sexual advances from men even when they fail to respond positively to these sexual advances"). Higher scores on the PSH indicate higher proclivities to sexually harass. Bartling and Eisenman (1993) reported high reliabilities for both men (.86) and women (.74) on the PSH scale.

Results and Discussion

Response Rate and Demographics

Four hundred and twenty-one graduate students were mailed surveys. Of those, 107 (57 females, 50 males) were returned, resulting in a 25% return rate. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 52 years (M = 29.01, SD = 6.7), however the majority of the population (67%) were in their 20s. They were predominantly single (65.4%), American (86.8%), and Christian (53.1%) (see Table 1). Additionally, participants were evenly distributed among the four major divisions of schools at the University of New Hampshire: (1) engineering and physical sciences (24.3%), (2) liberal arts (21.5%), (3) life sciences and agriculture (31.8%), and (4) business (10.3%).

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages on Age, Marital Status, School, Department Sex-Ratio, Degree Being Sought, Nationality, English Speaking, and Religious Affiliation for Overall Sample, Males, and Females (Study 1)

	Total: N = 107	Women: n = 57	Men: n = 50
Age	29.32 (SD = 6.7)	30.31 (7.1)	28.21 (6.2)
Marital Status:			
single	70 (65%)	37 (65%)	33 (66%)
married	32 (30%)	16 (28%)	16 (32%)
divorced	4 (4%)	3 (5%)	1 (2%)
other	1 (1%)	1 (2%)	
Single Status:			
not dating	17 (25%)	8 (22%)	9 (28%)
dating different people	12 (11%)	3 (8%)	9 (28%)
dating one person	33 (31%)	22 (60%)	11 (34%)
engaged	7 (7%)	4 (11%)	3 (9%)
School:			
Engineering, Physical Sciences	26 (24.5%)	8 (14%)	18 (36%)
Liberal Arts	23 (21.7%)	18 (32%)	5 (10%)
Life Sciences	34 (31.8%)	18 (32%)	16 (32%)
Business	11 (10.3%)	4 (7%)	7 (14%)
Other	13 (12%)	9 (16%)	4 (8%)
Male to Female Ratio In Department:			
mostly male	40 (39%)	18 (34%)	22 (44%)
mostly female	21 (20%)	14 (26%)	7 (14%)
equally balanced	39 (38%)	20 (38%)	19 (38%)
Degree:			
Masters	56 (52%)	23 (40%)	33 (66%)
Doctorate	49 (46%)	32 (56%)	17 (34%)
Other	2 (2%)	2 (4%)	
Nationality			
American	92 (87%)	51 (91%)	41 (82%)
Chinese	5 (5%)	3 (5%)	2 (4%)
Asian-American	1 (1%)		1 (2%)
Romanian	1 (1%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Brazilian	1 (1%)		1 (2%)
Indian	2 (2%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Spanish	1 (1%)		1 (2%)
Nigerian	1 (1%)		1 (2%)
Turkish	1 (1%)		1 (2%)
Hungarian	1 (1%)		1 (2%)
Native Speaker of English:			
YES	92 (88%)	50 (89%)	42 (86%)
NO	13 (12%)	6 (11%)	7 (14%)
Religious Affiliation			
Catholic	24 (24%)	11 (19%)	13 (33%)
Protestant	17 (36%)	10 (18%)	7 (18%)
Jewish	4 (4%)	2 (4%)	2 (5%)
Christian	10 (10%)	8 (14%)	2 (5%)
Agnostic	8 (8%)	6 (11%)	2 (5%)
Atheist	10 (10%)	4 (7%)	6 (15%)

Preliminary Analyses, Scale Scoring, and Data Screening

Cronbach alphas were calculated for each of the scales. The standardized alphas were as follows: SEQ-M (.90 - victimization experience items; .79 - perpetration experience items), Active-cognitive coping (.80), Active-behavioral coping (.81), Avoidant coping (.64), ATSH (.87), PSH (.87). Each of these reliability coefficients exceeds scores previously reported in the research literature.

Several other scales were calculated. Occurrence of victimization and perpetration were separately measured by taking the sum of 27 of the 28 appropriate items. If participants indicated that they had experienced the behavior once or more than once, they received an item score of one. Therefore, frequency scale scores ranged from zero to 26. One item was not included in the overall frequency analysis (i.e. experience with sexual harassment). Sexual harassment does not refer to a specific behavior.

Calculating participants' labeling of sexual harassment involved taking the sum of the 27 different behaviors on the SEQ-M which participants indicated as constituting "sexual harassment." Scores ranged from zero to 27. Since the victimization and perpetration items were identical in the types of behaviors they asked about, sum scores for labeling were only taken across the victimization items; however, both item sets were reliable as labeling measures (alphas: victimization = .94; perpetration = .95). These overall frequency scores for labeling were further divided into the two legal categories of quid pro quo (8-items) and hostile work environment (18-items) sexual harassment. The item concerning experience with rape was removed from the legal categorization, because rape is a separate legal issue from sexual harassment (i.e. rape is a criminal offense, sexual harassment is a civil offense).[7] Because of the difference in scale items, scores on the two sub-scales were standardized on a 100-point scale.

The frequencies regarding the status of the perpetrator or victim involved in the participants' experiences were established by taking the sum of the number of times participants indicated that a professor, graduate student, and/or undergraduate student was

involved. Therefore, three separate measures were taken, each with possible score ranges of zero to 26.

In order to assess participants' knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment, their open-ended definitions were content coded on 11 items relevant to the EEOC (1980) definition (e.g., behavior unwanted, behavior creates intimidating environment) and two items reflecting common myths or misconceptions of the legal definition (i.e. the victim must state that the behavior is unwanted, sexual harassment only occurs in opposite sex dyads). Scores were calculated by taking the sum of the 11 relevant items and subtracting the two myth items. Therefore, possible scores ranged from zero to 11 (see Appendix K for a complete code list).

Finally, participants' frequencies of responses to and consequences of unwanted sexual behavior were calculated by taking the sum of the items which they indicated having experienced. Responses were divided into two forms: direct (5 items) or indirect (4 items). Consequences were divided into psychological (2 items) and behavioral (3 items) forms. Because of the difference in scale items, scores on the sub-scales were each standardized an a 100-point scale.

All scales were examined for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Thirty-nine participants did not circle any of the behaviors listed on the SEQ-M as constituting sexual harassment. It seemed unlikely that participants did not believe any of the behaviors constituted sexual harassment. Therefore, when no items were circled, their scores were entered as missing data rather than as a "no" response. For each of the other scales, missing data was estimated by calculating the mean of the available data and replacing the missing value with the mean.

Finally, basic tests concerning the assumptions underlying multiple regression analyses were conducted. Scatterplots comparing variable residuals and predictors were examined for each regression analysis. The variables appeared to reasonably meet the

criteria concerning normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity, so no transformations were conducted.

Labeling Sexually Harassing Behaviors

In order to test the hypotheses that women would label more behaviors as sexual harassment than men, and that people with more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment would label more behaviors as sexual harassment, a standard multiple regression analysis was conducted with participant sex dummy coded and knowledge scores entered as the independent variables to predict labeling frequency. Table 2 shows the variable correlations, the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (ß), the squared semipartial correlations (sr^2) and R, R^2, and adjusted R^2. There was only a trend for participant sex to predict labeling frequencies (sr^2 = .06, p = .057). Therefore, males and females did not significantly differ in their frequencies of labeling behaviors as "sexual harassment."

Table 2
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Frequency of Labeling Behaviors as "Sexual Harassment" from Participant Sex and Knowledge of the Legal Definition of Sexual Harassment (Study 1)

Variables	Label (DV)	Sex	Define	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.25			3.34	.24	.06	1.94*
Define	.07	.16		0.12	.03	.00	.22
Constant				19.18			8.27**
M	21.41	0.53	3.91			R^2 = .06	
SD	6.91	0.50	1.61			Adjusted R^2 = .03	
						R = .25	

Note: * p = .057 N = 64
** p < .001

Knowledge of the legal definition did not predict labeling. Simply knowing how the law defines sexual harassment does not necessarily influence your own personal decisions about what specific behaviors constitute sexual harassment (see Table 3 for coding item frequencies) In addition, several participants commented that certain behaviors were "sexual harassment" only if they had been repeatedly experienced. Some circled the

items anyway; others did not. In other words, they were aware that there often has to be a pattern of behaviors for there to be sexual harassment, but their labeling may not reflect that distinction. Other participants may have felt similarly, but did not comment on the survey.

Table 3
Coding Items for Assessing "Knowledge of the Legal Definition of Sexual Harassment" (Frequencies) (Study 1)

Label:	Total: N = 100	Women: n = 52	Men: n = 48
behavior unwanted	64 (64%)	32 (62%)	32 (67%)
verbal behavior	68 (68%)	36 (69%)	32 (67%)
physical behavior	61 (61%)	32 (62%)	29 (60%)
power differential, power abuse	17 (17%)	10 (19%)	7 (15%)
threats, bribes	8 (8%)	7 (14%)	1 (2%)
gave examples	41 (41%)	24 (46%)	17 (35%)
behavior repetitious	19 (19%)	10 (19%)	9 (19%)
behavior creates substantial, consistent interference	5 (5%)	2 (4%)	3 (6%)
behavior creates hostile, intimidating environment	33 (33%)	20 (39%)	13 (27%)
victim must indicate behavior unwanted	11 (11%)	7 (14%)	4 (8%)
behavior sexual	79 (79%)	41 (79%)	38 (79%)
opposite sex only dyads	4 (4%)	2 (4%)	2 (4%)
behavior due to sex,gender	17 (17%)	8 (15%)	9 (19%)
Means/Standard Deviations:	3.97 (1.57)	4.10 (1.52)	3.83 (1.62)

It was also predicted that sex differences in the labeling of behaviors as "sexual harassment" would be found for hostile environment forms of sexual harassment, not necessarily for quid pro quo forms. Multiple regressions were performed to predict labeling of quid pro quo items and hostile work environment items with participant sex as the independent variable. Since knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment might also differentially affect quid pro quo versus hostile work environment sexual harassment, knowledge was also included as an independent variable.

There was a trend for sex predicting labeling of quid pro quo behaviors as "sexual harassment" ($sr^2 = .05$, $p = .069$) (see Table 4). In cases of hostile work environment sexual harassment, however, participant sex was a significant predictor ($sr^2 = .06$, $p = .045$) (see Table 5). Females labeled more items as sexual harassment than males.

Knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment was not a significant predictor of either quid pro quo or hostile work environment sexual harassment.

Table 4
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Frequency of Labeling Quid Pro Quo (QPQ) Behaviors as "Sexual Harassment" from Participant Sex and Knowledge of the Legal Definition of Sexual Harassment (Study 1)

Variables	QPQ (DV)	Sex	Define	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.22			10.99	.23	.05	1.85*
Define	-.04	.16		-1.11	-.08	.01	-0.60
Constant				87.37			10.95**
M	88.87	0.53	3.91		R^2 = .05		
SD	23.69	0.50	1.61		Adjusted R^2 = .02		
					R = .23		

Note: * p = .069 N = 64
** p < .001

Table 5
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Frequency of Labeling Hostile Work Environment (HWE) Behaviors as "Sexual Harassment" from Participant Sex and Knowledge of the Legal Definition of Sexual Harassment (Study 1)

Variables	HWE (DV)	Sex	Define	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.26			14.89	.26	.06	2.05*
Define	.09	.16		.90	.05	.01	.40
Constant				59.32			6.08**
M	70.75	0.53	3.91		R^2 = .07		
SD	29.22	0.50	1.61		Adjusted R^2 = .04		
					R = .27		

Note: * p = .045 N = 64
** p < .001

It appears that sex predicts labeling frequency only for behaviors legally defined as hostile work environment sexual harassment. Quid pro quo forms of sexual harassment are fairly clear cut. People agree that bribing or threatening someone for sexual favors is sexual harassment. It is the more ambiguous socio-sexual behaviors, such as crude sexual remarks, that people tend to disagree on whether they earn the label of "sexual harassment" (see Table 6 for item frequencies on labeling sexual harassment). Finding sex as a predictor of labeling frequencies is fairly consistent with previous research findings that women tend to define more behaviors as "sexual harassment" than men (e.g., Baird et al.,

1995; Fitzgerald & Ormerod, 1990; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Popovich, Gehlauf, Jolton, Somers, & Godinho, 1992; Powell, 1986) and Kenig and Ryan's (1986) minimization-maximization model. Since women are more often the victims of sexual harassment, it is in their best interests to maximize the issue by labeling larger groups of behaviors as sexual harassment. This way, if they are ever victimized themselves, they may feel that their experiences would be more likely to fall under the label of sexual harassment. In contrast, it is in men's best interest to minimize the issue, because men are more often perpetrators of sexual harassment. To label only the more severe behaviors as sexual harassment may serve to protect them from future accusations.

Table 6
Item Frequencies and Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations for Labeling of SEQ-M Items as "Sexual Harassment" (Study 1)

	Total: N = 68	Women: n = 36	Men: n = 32
*subtle bribes to engage in sexual behavior	57 (85%)	32 (89%)	25 (81%)
*direct offer of reward for sexual behavior	58 (85%)	32 (89%)	26 (81%)
*actual rewards for sexual "cooperation"	53 (78%)	29 (81%)	24 (75%)
*subtle threats for not being sexually cooperative	62 (91%)	33 (92%)	29 (91%)
*direct threat for not being sexually cooperative	62 (91%)	33 (92%)	29 (91%)
*engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of promises or rewards	61 (91%)	33 (92%)	28 (90%)
*experienced negative consequences for refusing sexual activity	62 (93%)	35(97%)	27 (87%)
*engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of fear of punishment	62 (93%)	34 (94%)	28 (90%)
†suggestive stories, offensive jokes	39 (57%)	22 (61%)	17 (53%)
†crudely sexual remarks	37 (55%)	20 (56%)	17 (53%)
†seductive remarks about you	42 (63%)	26 (72%)	16 (52%)
†unwanted staring, leering, ogling	43 (64%)	23 (64%)	20 (65%)
†sexist or suggestive teaching material	49 (73%)	27 (75%)	22 (71%)
†treated differently because man/woman	36 (54%)	23 (64%)	13 (42%)
†sexist remarks	37 (55%)	21 (58%)	16 (52%)
†unwanted attempts to draw into a personal or sexual discussion	44 (66%)	24 (67%)	20 (65%)
†seductive behavior	32 (48%)	20 (56%)	12 (39%)
†unwanted sexual attention	49 (73%)	26 (72%)	23 (74%)
†unwanted attempts to establish romantic or sexual relationship	53 (79%)	31 (86%)	22 (71%)
†propositioned	36 (53%)	22 (61%)	14 (44%)
†unwanted attempts to touch or fondle	60 (90%)	34 (94%)	26 (84%)
†forceful attempts to touch, fondle, or grab	61 (91%)	35 (97%)	26 (84%)
†indecent exposure	61 (91%)	34 (94%)	27 (87%)

Table 6 (cont.)

†unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse resulting in crying, pleading, or physically struggling	62 (93%)	34 (94%)	28 (90%)
†attempted to force touching of genitals	62 (93%)	34 (94%)	28 (90%)
†used force to have intercourse	60 (90%)	33 (92%)	27 (87%)
sexually harassed	55 (81%)	26 (72%)	29 (91%)
raped	51 (76%)	26 (72%)	25 (81%)
Means and Standard Deviations:			
Overall: (26 items)	21.27 (7.07)	22.28 (6.71)	20.13 (7.40)
Quid Pro Quo: (8 items)	7.02 (1.97)	7.25 (1.83)	6.75 (2.13)
Hostile Work Environment: (18 items)	12.69 (5.31)	13.58 (4.94)	11.69 (5.60)

Note: * Items classified as "quid pro quo" sexual harassment
† Items classified as "hostile work environment" sexual harassment

While men and women may differ in their labeling of behaviors as sexual harassment, sex is not sufficient to fully explain people's differing opinions. Sex only explained six percent of the variance for both overall labeling and hostile work environment behaviors, suggesting that researchers should also include other variables as possible predictors of people's labeling of sexual harassment. For example, people who have attended educational programs on sexual harassment may be more aware of the issue and thus label behaviors differently than people without such education. Related to the minimization-maximization model (Kenig & Ryan, 1986) of perceived self-interest, people who have been victimized may label more behaviors as sexual harassment, whereas perpetrators may label fewer behaviors. Finally, people who are more tolerant of sexual harassment and/or have higher proclivities to commit sexual harassment may label fewer behaviors than those who are less tolerant and/or have lower proclivities.

Exploratory Analysis: Alternative Predictors of Labeling

In order to investigate alternative predictors of labeling frequency, an exploratory regression analysis was conducted. Experience with education programs (i.e. yes, no), frequencies of victimization and perpetration, attitudes toward sexual harassment (ATSH), and proclivities to sexually harass (PSH) were included as possible predictors of labeling

frequency (see Table 7). Participants' proclivities to sexually harass predicted labeling (sr^2 = .05, p = .05). Participants with a higher proclivity to sexually harass labeled fewer behaviors as sexual harassment than those with lower proclivities (r (68) = -.36). This is consistent with the minimization-maximization model (Kenig & Ryan, 1986). It is in the best interest of potential perpetrators to minimize the issue of sexual harassment (via labeling fewer behaviors as "sexual harassment").

Table 7
Exploratory Regression Analyses Predicting Frequency of Labeling Behaviors as "Sexual Harassment" from Education Experience, Frequencies of Victimization and Perpetration, Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH) and Proclivities to Sexually Harass (PSH) (Study 1)

Variables	Label (DV)	Education	Victimization	Perpetration	ATSH	PSH
Education	-.03					
Victimization	-.05	.29				
Perpetration	-.22	.28	.63			
ATSH	-.28	.10	.33	.47		
PSH	-.36	.15	.23	.35	.68	
M	21.27	.56	3.68	1.54	2.28	2.30
SD	7.07	.50	4.32	2.37	.56	.64

	B	ß	sr^2	t
Education	.56	.04	.00	.32
Victimization	.22	.13	.01	.88
Perpetration	-.56	-.19	.02	-1.15
ATSH	-.33	-.03	.00	-.15
PSH	-3.47	-.31	.05	-1.97*
Constant	29.74			7.95**

R^2 = .15 Adjusted R^2 = .08 R = .39

Note: * p = .054 N = 68
** p < .001

It is difficult to conclude why none of the other variables were significant predictors of labeling frequency. It is not possible to evaluate the quality of the education programs participants attended; simply having participated in an educational program does not necessitate acquiring a heightened sensitivity or awareness of sexual harassing behavior. Also, the nature of participants' experiences as victim and/or perpetrators may not influence judgments on a written survey about hypothetical behaviors. Finally, the ATSH and the

PSH were highly correlated with one another (r (68) = .68), yet only the PSH predicted labeling. These surveys were different in that the PSH items focused on male perpetrator-female victim dyads of harassment, whereas the ATSH included issues of female perpetrator-male victim. However, it is not clear how this difference could account for the difference in prediction.

Victimization Experiences: Sex Differences

It was predicted that women would report more experiences with unwanted sexual behavior than men. In addition, it was expected that males would most likely be victimized by those with a higher (professors) or equal (graduate students) power status than those with a lower power status (undergraduate students); females, on the other hand, would be likely to be victimized by people at any power level. Finally, single participants were predicted to report more experiences with victimization than married participants.

In order to test these hypotheses, two analyses were conducted. First, a standard multiple regression was run with participant sex and marital status (single, married) as the independent variables to predict frequency of victimization. The R value for the regression was statistically significant ($F(2,104) = 5.05$, $p = .008$). Only marital status was a significant predictor of victimization (see Table 8), accounting for nine percent of the variability in frequency of victimization. Being single was related to a higher frequency of victimization.

Table 8
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Victimization from Participant Sex and Marital Status (Study 1)

Variables	Victim (DV)	Sex	Marital	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	-.03			-.34	-.04	.00	-.46
Marital	.29	.04		2.56	.30	.09	3.16**
Constant				1.76			2.29*
M	3.37	.53	.70			R^2 = .09	
SD	3.97	.50	.46			Adjusted R^2 = .07	
						R = .30*	

Note: * $p = .024$ N = 107
** $p < .01$

There are several possible explanations for this finding. First, single people may be more likely to be targeted by perpetrators because of their romantic availability. For example, making a pass at a single person is more acceptable than making a pass at a married person. Second, single people may be more likely to be exposed to socio-sexual interactions, because they are not going home to be with a spouse. Married people may not be harassed simply because they just are not spending as much time at school.

Second, a MANOVA was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable and frequency of perpetration by professors, graduate students, and undergraduate students as the three dependent variables. There was neither a between-subjects effect for sex nor a within-subjects effect for the dependent variables. Males and females reported similar frequencies of unwanted sexual behavior committed by professors ($\underline{M}$ = 1.18, $\underline{SD}$ = 3.71, $\underline{n}$ = 50; $\underline{M}$ = .90, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.39, $\underline{n}$ = 57, respectively), graduate students ($\underline{M}$ = 1.42, $\underline{SD}$ = 2.05; $\underline{M}$ = 1.37, $\underline{SD}$ = 2.33), and undergraduate students ($\underline{M}$ = 1.68, $\underline{SD}$ = 2.79; $\underline{M}$ = .86, $\underline{SD}$ = 1.75). Since the possible range of scores for experiences with victimization is zero to 26, and the average reported experiences were less than two, the lack of effect for sex or perpetrator status may have been due to the low overall frequency of reported unwanted sexual behavior. This sample of graduate students was somewhat young and almost half were only in their first year of graduate school. It is possible that either the institution sufficiently deters unwanted sexual behavior, or that experiences might increase over the participants' tenure at the university.

Exploratory Analysis: Socialization and Marital Status

In order to examine the earlier suggestion that social exposure may have differed based upon marital status, an exploratory multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. A score was calculated for socialization behaviors by taking the sum of the types of people the participants reported socializing with (professor, graduate students, undergraduate students, other) (Appendix B). This socialization score served as the dependent variable, and marital status and participant sex were the independent variables.[8]

There was a significant main effect for sex of participant ($F(1,103) = 11.46$, $p = .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .14$). Males socialized with more types of people ($M = 2.14$, $SD = 1.16$, $n = 50$) than females ($M = 1.32$, $SD = .83$, $n = 57$). However, there was no effect for marital status and no interaction between sex and marital status. While no firm conclusion can be made on this analysis alone, it is possible that this sex difference in socialization could explain the lack of a significant effect for sex as a predictor of victimization. Women are more often the target of unwanted sexual behavior. However, if the men in this sample socialized more than the women, they may have been exposed to more socio-sexual behavior, thus evening out the frequencies between men and women.

Victimization Experiences: Context

It was also hypothesized that the sex-ratio of the participants' departments predicts victimization. More specifically, people who are in a department dominated by the opposite sex (i.e. females in mostly male departments, males in mostly female departments) are more likely to be victimized than people who are among the dominant group or are in a department with an equal distribution of males and females. In addition, it is possible that while sex was not a significant predictor of overall victimization (Table 8), the pattern of predictors may be different for men and women. Therefore, in order to address these two issues, standard multiple regressions were conducted separately for women and men using sex-ratio of department (mostly male, mostly female, equal) and participant marital status as the predictors for frequency of victimization.

For females, there was a trend for the regression R value to be significant ($F(3,49) = 2.55$, $p = .066$). Sex-ratio was not a significant predictor of victimization (see Table 9). This is contrary to the major causal theories of sexual harassment which emphasize the position of the victim as being in the numerically non-dominant group (e.g., Gutek & Morasch's 1982 sex-role spillover model). Since the actual numbers of males and females in the departments were not assessed, further exploration into this finding is not possible.

Table 9
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Female Victimization from Department Sex-Ratio and Participant Marital Status (Study 1)

Variables	Victim (DV)	C1	C2	Marital	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex-Ratio								
Contrast 1	.07				.72	.15	.02	1.07
Contrast 2	.14	-.38			.82	.18	.03	1.28
Marital	.32	-.04	.03		2.52	.31	.10	2.37**
Constant					1.57			1.70
M	3.36	.09	-.17	.74			R^2 = .14	
SD	3.57	.77	.80	.45			Adjusted R^2 = .08	
							R = .37*	

Note: * p < .10 N = 53
** p = .02

Participant marital status was a significant predictor of females' victimization (Table 9). This effect was similar to the entire sample. Marital status predicted ten percent of the variance for females, while it predicted nine percent for the entire sample.

For males, the R value was significant ($F(3,44) = 3.24$, $p = .031$). There was only a trend for department sex-ratio to be a predictor for males' victimization (see Table 10). This would suggest a tendency for males to be more likely to be victimized in departments dominated by females ($r(48) = -.27$). Marital status was a significant predictor of males' victimization, explaining eight percent of the variability in males' victimization.

Table 10
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Male Victimization from Department Sex-Ratio and Participant Marital Status (Study 1)

Variables	Victim (DV)	C1	C2	Marital	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex-Ratio								
Contrast 1	-.27				-1.56	-.25	.06	-1.08*
Contrast 2	.22	-.38			1.14	.18	.03	1.28
Marital	.28	.02	.03		2.73	.28	.08	2.02**
Constant					2.49			2.11**
M	3.65	.31	-.25	.71			R^2 = .18	
SD	4.54	.72	.70	.46			Adjusted R^2 = .12	
							R = .43**	

Note: * p < .10 N = 48
** p < .05

The pattern of predictors for male and female victimization differed only slightly. Being single was related to victimization for both men and women, and marital status was the only significant predictor for both. However, the sex-ratio of the participants' departments had a tendency to be related to males' victimization. This is contrary to the expectation that participants who are of the non-dominant sex in their departments would experience more victimization than participants of the dominant sex. Again, this could be due to the method of measurement. Participants were asked to estimate whether their departments were mostly male, mostly female, or equally distributed. No exact numbers were requested. In addition, this does not take into account whether these ratios were consistent for professors and graduate students. For example, one participant commented that the faculty were mostly male but the graduate students were mostly female; this participant, therefore, indicated that the department was equally balanced. Such differences in ratio between the power levels could be masking differences in victimization.

Consequences and Responses to Victimization

It was predicted that (a) female victims would be more likely to suffer from psychological and behavioral consequences than male victims, (b) female victims would be more likely to respond indirectly to the perpetrators' actions, while male victims would respond directly, and (c) people who rely on active coping strategies would be likely to respond directly, and avoidant strategies would be related to indirect responses. Standard multiple regression analyses were conducted to test each of these hypotheses. Participant sex, active-cognitive coping, active-behavioral coping, and avoidant coping served as predictors of measures of participants' direct responses (e.g., file a complaint), indirect responses (e.g., avoid the perpetrator), psychological consequences (e.g., fear), and behavioral consequences (e.g., changes in eating habits).

None of the independent variables were significant predictors for the scales measuring frequency of responses and consequences. The effects of victims' experiences with unwanted sexual behavior and their responses to it were not related to their sex or

coping strategies. It is possible that the lack of a prediction is due to the types of experiences victims reported. Overall, most reports of unwanted sexual behavior involved hostile work environment situations (see Table 11 for item frequencies), and it is unclear whether participants interpreted their experiences as constituting sexual harassment. Magley and DeNardo (1996) suggest that even labeling one's own experiences as "sexual harassment" can have serious psychological consequences for the victim (e.g., acknowledging victim status can lead to feelings of devaluation). Participants had been asked to indicate which behaviors from the SEQ-M constitute sexual harassment, however, this does not necessarily mean they felt their own experiences were harassment. Therefore, the possible influence of victims' self-labeling of experiences on consequences and responses cannot be validly explored.

Table 11
Item Frequencies and Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations of Victimization of Graduate Students from the SEQ-M (Study 1)

Label:	Total: N = 107	Women: n = 57	Men: n = 50
subtle bribes to engage in sexual behavior	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
direct offer of reward for sexual behavior	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
actual rewards for sexual "cooperation"	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
subtle threats for not being sexually cooperative	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
direct threat for not being sexually cooperative	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of promises or rewards	2(2%)	1(2%)	1(2%)
experienced negative consequences for refusing sexual activity	5(5%)	3(5%)	2(4%)
engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of fear of punishment	3(3%)	2(4%)	1(2%)
suggestive stories, offensive jokes	37(35%)	15(26%)	22(44%)
crudely sexual remarks	34(32%)	18(32%)	16(32%)
seductive remarks about you	32(30%)	16(28%)	16(32%)
unwanted staring, leering, ogling	23(22%)	17(30%)	6(12%)
sexist or suggestive teaching material	7(7%)	5(9%)	2(4%)
treated differently because man/woman	34(32%)	19(34%)	15(31%)
sexist remarks	21(20%)	11(20%)	10(20%)
unwanted attempts to draw into a personal or sexual discussion	22(21%)	9(16%)	13(27%)
seductive behavior	35(33%)	18(32%)	17(35%)
unwanted sexual attention	16(15%)	11(19%)	5(10%)
unwanted attempts to establish romantic or sexual relationship	19(18%)	9(16%)	10(20%)
propositioned	18(17%)	8(14%)	10(20%)

Table 11 (cont.)

unwanted attempts to touch or fondle	12(11%)	5(9%)	7(14%)
forceful attempts to touch, fondle, or grab	3(3%)	1(2%)	2(4%)
indecent exposure	5(5%)	0	5(10%)
unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse resulting in crying, pleading, or physically struggling	1(1%)	1(2%)	0
attempted to force touching of genitals	4(4%)	1(2%)	3(6%)
used force to have intercourse	0	0	0
sexually harassed	20(19%)	13(23%)	7(14%)
raped	3(3%)	3(5%)	0
Mean, Standard Deviations:	3.37(4.0)	3.26 (3.47)	3.50 (4.5)

Once again, it was considered that while participant sex might not be an accurate predictor of responses and consequences, the patterns of predictions for men and women might be different. Therefore, a set of regressions using active-cognitive coping, active-behavioral coping, and avoidant coping served as predictors of measures of participants' direct responses, indirect responses, psychological consequences, and behavioral consequences were conducted separately for women and men. While there were still no significant predictors of responses or consequences for female participants, active-cognitive and active-behavioral coping strategies were significant predictors of male participants' direct response to the perpetrator ($\underline{sr}^2 = .16$ and .13, respectively) (see Table 12). Specifically, males who engaged in direct responses to unwanted sexual behavior utilized more active-cognitive and less active-behavioral coping strategies. This is unusual, because it would be expected that taking an active behavioral approach to one's situation would be related to one's coping strategies. It is possible that the unexpected relationship is due partly to the low number of items on the scale measuring direct response (five items). The effect should be replicated before any further conclusions are made.

Table 12
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Male Participants' Direct Responses to Unwanted Sexual Behavior by Participant Active-Cognitive (ACC), Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Coping Strategies (Study 1)

Variables	Direct (DV)	ACC	ABC	AS	B	ß	sr^2	t
ACC	.20				1.32	.67	.16	2.48*
ABC	-.07	.79			-1.13	-.59	.13	-2.25*
AS	.09	.19	.07		.05	.01	.01	.08
Constant					2.83			.38
M	6.11	19.70	20.36	5.47			R^2 = .17	
SD	13.37	6.73	7.02	3.61			Adjusted R^2 = .10	
							R = .42	

Note: * $p < .05$ $N = 36$

Together, all three coping variables explained 10% of the variability in participants' frequencies of making direct responses to unwanted sexual behavior. None of the other response or consequences scales were predicted by coping strategies for men.

Exploratory Analysis: Victimization, Coping, and Attitudes

The coping strategies scales assessed participants' general coping styles, not necessarily ones related to experiences with unwanted sexual behavior. Therefore, it is unclear whether these styles developed as a result of participants' experiences or made them more or less vulnerable to victimization. The same could also be said for participants' attitudes toward sexual harassment and their proclivities to harass. In order to examine whether these factors could predict victimization, an exploratory regression analysis was conducted with participants' scores on the ATSH, PSH, and three coping sub-scales as the predictors of the frequency of victimization.

The value R for the regression was significant ($F(5,101) = 3.28$, $p = .009$). Only participants' score on avoidant coping strategies was a significant predictor of victimization and explained eight percent of the variance (see Table 13). The more avoidant coping strategies participants utilized, the more they reported being victimized ($r(107) = .34$).

Table 13

Exploratory Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Participants' Frequency of Victimization by Participants' Active-Cognitive (ACC), Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Strategies, Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH), and Proclivity to Sexually Harass (PSH) (Study 1)

Variables	Victim (DV)	ACC	ABC	AS	ATSH	PSH	B	ß	sr^2	t
ACC	.01						-.04	-.07	.00	-.51
ABC	-.01	.72					.01	.02	.00	.12
AS	.34	.28	.19				.36	.31	.08	3.02*
ATSH	.24	-.13	-.21	.29			.93	.14	.01	1.07
PSH	.17	-.01	-.10	.22	.65		.12	.02	.00	.16
Constant							-.06			-.03
M	3.37	20.61	21.94	4.88	2.28	2.37			R^2 = .14	
SD	3.97	6.18	7.29	3.37	.58	.67			Adjusted R^2 = .10	
									R = .37*	

Note: * $p < .01$ $N = 107$

It is possible that people who tend to be avoidant are easy marks for perpetrators. It would make sense that a perpetrator would be more likely to harass someone who they believe would not report their behavior or directly resist them. Salisbury et al. (1986) found that most victims of sexual harassment lack a social support system, which harassers may have observed and taken advantage of. In addition, many of the victims in the sample reported a history of sexual victimization. Salisbury et al. (1986) argued that the history of prior stress may have made these women more vulnerable to the stresses of sexual harassment. However, despite the significant relationship between avoidant strategies and victimization, it cannot be validly concluded that an avoidant coping caused victimization.

Perpetration Experiences

Finally, it was predicted that participants who reported perpetrating more unwanted sexual behavior would most likely be male, married, have higher proclivities to harass, and be more tolerant of sexual harassment. In addition, females would most likely harass people of a lower power status (undergraduate students), while males would harass people of an equal (graduate students) or lower power status. In order to test these hypotheses, two analyses were conducted. First, a standard multiple regression analysis was run including participants' sex, marital status (single, married), attitudes toward sexual

harassment (ATSH), and proclivities to commit harassment (PSH) as predictors of participants' reported frequencies of perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior.

The R value for the regression was significant ($F(4,102) = 6.98$, $p < .001$). Only sex was a significant predictor of frequency of perpetration (see Table 14). Males were more often perpetrators of unwanted sexual behavior than females. There was also a trend for ATSH as a predictor ($p = .06$); more tolerant attitudes toward sexual harassment had a tendency to be related to higher levels of perpetration (r (107) = .37).

Table 14
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Perpetration from Participant Sex, Marital Status, Proclivities to Sexually Harass (PSH), and Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH) (Study 1)

Variables	Perpetrate (DV)	Sex	Marital	PSH	ATSH
Sex	-.32				
Marital	.13	.04			
PSH	.27	-.10	-.02		
ATSH	.37	-.28	.01	.65	
M	1.48	.53	.70	2.37	2.28
SD	2.33	.50	.46	.67	.58

	B	ß	sr^2	t	
Sex	-1.19	-.26	.06	-2.78**	
Marital	.73	.14	.02	.10	R^2 = .21
PSH	.37	.10	.01	.37	Adjusted R^2 = .18
ATSH	.91	.23	.03	.06*	R = .46***
Constant	-1.35			-1.33	

Note: * $p < .10$ N = 107
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

It is not clear why the PSH was not related to perpetration. The items on the PSH are fairly strong statements of attitudes. Perhaps "political correctness" resulted in less accurate PSH scores. It is also possible that the PSH is only a good measure for proclivities to more severe forms of harassment (e.g., quid pro quo), because the types of behaviors reported by participants were mostly cases of hostile work environment (see Table 15 for item frequencies).

Table 15

Item Frequencies and Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations of Perpetration of by Graduate Students from the SEQ-M (Study 1)

Label:	Total: N = 107	Women: n = 57	Men: n = 50
subtle bribes to engage in sexual behavior	0	0	0
direct offer of reward for sexual behavior	0	0	0
actual rewards for sexual "cooperation"	2(2%)	0	2(4%)
subtle threats for not being sexually cooperative	2(2%)	0	2(4%)
direct threat for not being sexually cooperative	0	0	0
engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of promises or rewards	0	0	0
experienced negative consequences for refusing sexual activity	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of fear of punishment	0	0	0
suggestive stories, offensive jokes	15(14%)	2(4%)	13(26%)
crudely sexual remarks	23(22%)	9(16%)	14(28%)
seductive remarks about you	22(21%)	8(14%)	14(28%)
unwanted staring, leering, ogling	8(8%)	1(2%)	7(14%)
sexist or suggestive teaching material	2(2%)	2(4%)	0
treated differently because man/woman	17(16%)	7(13%)	10(20%)
sexist remarks	12(11%)	1(2%)	11(22%)
unwanted attempts to draw into a personal or sexual discussion	4(4%)	1(2%)	3(6%)
seductive behavior	22(21%)	9(16%)	13(26%)
unwanted sexual attention	4(4%)	1(2%)	3(6%)
unwanted attempts to establish romantic or sexual relationship	4(4%)	1(2%)	3(6%)
propositioned	10(10%)	2(4%)	8(16%)
unwanted attempts to touch or fondle	2(2%)	0	2(4%)
forceful attempts to touch, fondle, or grab	2(2%)	0	2(4%)
indecent exposure	2(2%)	0	2(4%)
unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse resulting in crying, pleading, or physically struggling	0	0	0
attempted to force touching of genitals	1(1%)	0	1(2%)
used force to have intercourse	0	0	0
sexually harassed	3(3%)	0	3(6%)
raped	0	0	0
Mean, Standard Deviations:	1.48(2.3)	0.77 (1.4)	2.28 (2.9)

Participants' marital status was also not a significant predictor of perpetration. Single and married participants were equally likely to perpetrate unwanted sexual behavior. The literature had suggested that married men were most often the culprits of sexual harassment. However, this research is based upon victims' accounts. In addition, these

studies focused on severe cases of sexual harassment. Participants in this study did not claim to have committed very many quid pro quo situations.

Second, a MANOVA was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable and frequency of victimization of professors, graduate students, and undergraduate students as the three dependent variables. There was a significant main effect for sex ($F(3,103) = 3.73$, $p = .014$, Pillais = .10) at the multivariate level. At the univariate level, frequency of victimizing graduates ($F(1,105) = 8.06$, $p = .005$) and undergraduates ($F(1,105) = 8.78$, $p = .004$) were also significant. Males harassed more graduate students ($M = 1.18$, $SD = 1.92$) and undergraduate students ($M = 1.28$, $SD = 2.19$) than females ($M = .37$, $SD = .92$; $M = .35$, $SD = 1.68$, respectively).

There was also a significant interaction of sex with status of victim (within-subjects factor) ($F(2,104) = 3.12$, $p = .048$, Pillais = .06). In order to examine the nature of this interaction, three paired samples t-tests were conducted between the three dependent variables for females and males separately. In order to correct for Type I error, a Bonferroni correction was used; a p-value of .008 was used as the significance cut-off. Male participants perpetrated more unwanted sexual behavior against undergraduates ($M = 1.28$, $SD = 2.19$) than professors ($M = .36$, $SD = 1.34$) ($t(49) = -2.91$, $p = .005$). None of the other comparisons were significant.

Finally, there was a within-subjects effect of status of victim ($F(2,104) = 6.71$, $p = .002$, Pillais = .11). Three paired samples t-tests were conducted between the three dependent variables. A Bonferroni correction of .02 served as the significance cut-off. Graduates ($M = .75$, $SD = 1.52$) were victimized more than professors ($M = .27$, $SD = 1.10$) ($t(106) = -3.00$, $p = .003$). Undergraduates ($M = .79$, $SD = 1.68$) were also more often victims than professors ($M = .27$, $SD = 1.10$) ($t(106) = -3.09$, $p = .003$). However, graduates and undergraduates were equally victimized.

Graduate and undergraduate students were most often victimized, and male participants were more often the perpetrators. Sexual harassment is an abuse of power,

and victims are typically of a lower or equal power status to the perpetrator (e.g., Paludi & Barickman, 1991). Additionally, men have a higher power status overall in our society (e.g., MacKinnon, 1979). Contra-power sexual harassment (lower power perpetrator, higher power victim) does exist; however, it is rare and occurs when the higher power person is female and the lower power person is male (e.g., Bedard & Hartung, 1996).

Since previous analyses demonstrated differences in the patterns of the predictors for men and women, separate regression analyses were conducted for men and women (see Table 16). Marital status, PSH, and ATSH scores were included to predict frequency of perpetration. For females, the R value was significant ($F(3,53) = 10.21$, $p < .001$). As with the entire sample, ATSH was a significant predictor of perpetration, explaining nine percent of the variance. Higher tolerances for sexual harassment were related to higher frequencies of perpetration. All of the variables together accounted for 33% of the variability in frequency of perpetration.

Table 16
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Females' Frequency of Perpetration from Marital Status, Proclivities to Sexually Harass (PSH), and Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH) (Study 1)

Variables	Perpetrate (DV)	Marital	PSH	ATSH	
Marital	-.02				
PSH	.52	-.15			
ATSH	.57	-.08	.65		
M	.77	.72	2.31	2.13	
SD	1.36	.45	.66	.61	
	B	ß	sr^2	t	
Marital	.16	.05	.00	.49	R^2 = .37
PSH	.56	.27	.04	1.88	Adjusted R^2 = .33
ATSH	.88	.40	.09	2.75*	R = .61**
Constant	-2.52			-3.77**	

Note: * $p < .01$ N = 57
** $p < .001$

For males, there were no significant predictors of perpetration. The differential findings for males and females suggest two possibilities. First, women's attitudes may be more related to their behavior than men's attitudes. Second, perhaps, the ATSH scale is

better at assessing women's attitudes in relation to their behavior. It is also possible that male's socio-sexual behavior is intended to be "friendly," while the females engage in such behavior with different motives (e.g., power abuse). Therefore, men's socio-sexual behavior is not related to their tolerance for "sexual harassment."

In Study 1, many of the original hypotheses were not supported. It was especially surprising that sex was not a predictor of either labeling or victimization experiences. This is contrary to most of the literature on sexual harassment (e.g., see reviews by Fitzgerald 1996 and 1993). Women are more often victims and label more behaviors as sexual harassment (e.g., Kenig & Ryan, 1986). However, it is difficult to make any valid conclusions about the lack of sex differences until the findings can be replicated. Since Study 2 utilized the same survey with a different sample population, it may help support or refute the findings in Study 1.

III. STUDY 2

Sexual harassment is a societal phenomenon, yet, studies of academic sexual harassment (e.g., Benson & Thomson, 1982; McKinney, Olson, & Satterfield, 1988; Roscoe, Strouse, & Goodwin, 1994) are typically limited to examining a single population (i.e. one school or university). A graduate student sample from one university can provide researchers with information on the prevalence and attitudes concerning sexual harassment within one setting. However, the findings cannot be validly generalized to graduate student experiences as a whole. Therefore, a national sample of graduate students is necessary to understand the dynamics of sexual harassment in graduate school.

In order to recruit graduate students from as many universities and colleges across the country as possible, Study 2 was conducted over the internet. The internet has become widely available in the past few years and thus serves as an excellent medium through which to distribute the survey to a larger population. Study 2 was at once a replication and extension of Study 1. Both involved the use of the same survey and lottery format. In addition, the same hypotheses were proposed:

1. Based upon the research on sex differences in labeling sexual harassment and the minimization-maximization model, it was predicted that females would label more behaviors as constituting sexual harassment than males. Differences between men and women's judgments were expected to be more pronounced for potentially hostile environment sexual harassment than for quid pro quo sexual harassment behaviors.

2. People who have more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment would label more behaviors as harassment. In addition, Kenig and Ryan's (1986) argument for the minimization-maximization model suggests that women would have more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment than men.

3. Women would report more experiences with victimization than men.

4. Participants would most likely be victimized by those with a higher or equal power status than those with a lower status. However, there should be a difference between men and women. Females would be more likely to be victimized by someone at any power level (professor, graduate, or undergraduate), while males would be more likely victimized only by professors (i.e. higher power status).

5. Participants who are single and/or work in a department dominated by the opposite sex would most likely be victimized.

6. Female victims would be more likely to suffer from psychological and behavioral symptoms than male victims.

7. Female victims would be more likely to take indirect action, while male victims would be more likely to take direct action against the perpetrator.

8. People who rely on active coping strategies would be likely to take direct action against the perpetrator; avoidant strategies would be related to indirect action.

9. Based upon the accounts of victims and potential perpetrators of sexual harassment, it was expected that participants who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior would most likely be male, married, have higher proclivities to harass and be more tolerant of sexual harassment. Females would be more likely to harass people with a lower power status, while males would harass people at an equal or lower power status.

However, Study 2 is also an extension of Study 1. Only recently have researchers begun collecting data over the internet. Issues of privacy and confidentiality are being addressed by numerous organizations (e.g., Women Halting Online Abuse, 1998). This method of collecting data should be studied and was considered as a possible influence on graduate students' participation and response.

Method

Participant Recruitment and Contact

In order to distribute the survey as widely as possible to graduate students, an extensive search was conducted over the internet for listservs which catered specifically to

graduate student populations. Five listservs were determined to be relevant to graduate students and/or the study of graduate school. The PSYCHGRAD Project is an on-line psychology graduate student journal. The AERA-GSL is devoted to the discussion of topics related to graduate study in American higher education. GRADTALK is a confidential discussion group for graduate students only to discuss issues relevant to them. NAGPS is the National Association of Graduate-Professional Students. Finally, GRDSTUSV is a discussion group on issues concerning graduate student services. The moderators of each listserv were contacted to request permission to distribute the survey. The AERA-GSL and NAGPS gave permission to directly distribute the survey. GRADTALK suggested that a request first be sent out for graduate students to respond to (i.e. the informed consent); those who were willing would personally e-mail the experimenter for a copy of the survey.

Since it was unclear how responsive the members of these listservs would be, a fourth listserv was added. SPSP is a listserv for social and personality psychologists. The moderator gave permission to directly distribute the survey over the listserv and asked if he could attach a note of endorsement to the survey (see Appendix L).

Not all of the members of these listservs are graduate students. Therefore, the informed consent letter included a statement (see Appendix M) encouraging listserv members to distribute the survey to graduate students. Participants were asked where they received the survey in order to track its distribution.

The informed consent letter was almost identical in content to the one used for Study 1, including information about the study, the $100 lottery, and the deadline (December 15). The only difference was in the method for returning the survey and the lottery entry. Participants in Study 2 were informed that they could either return the survey via e-mail or through standard mail services to the experimenter's campus address. The lottery entry could be done in the same manner, but was to be sent separately from the survey. If participants sent their surveys via e-mail, their return addresses would be

deleted by the experimenter before the survey was downloaded to protect their identities. The experimenter's e-mail address was included in the informed consent letter to allow participants to ask any questions concerning the survey.

Procedure

The survey included the same scales and measures as those used in Study 1: (a) demographics (Appendix B), (b) experiences as victims and perpetrators of unwanted sexual activity (SEQ-M; Appendix C), (c) behavioral and psychological consequences of unwanted sexual behavior (Appendix D), (d) direct and indirect responses to unwanted sexual behavior (Appendix D), (e) beliefs about what behaviors constitute sexual harassment, (f) knowledge about how sexual harassment is defined, (g) previous experience with sexual harassment education programs (Appendix E), (h) awareness of their universities policies and procedures regarding sexual harassment (Appendix F), (i) general coping strategies (Appendix G), (j) attitudes toward sexual harassment (Appendix H), and (k) proclivities to commit sexual harassment (Appendix I).

Three additional questions were included in the Study 2 survey. Participants were asked to indicate (a) their department, (b) their university/college affiliation, and (c) where they received the survey from (AERA-GSL, GRADTALK, NAGSPS, SPSP, or a member of one of these groups).

Participants were told to return the surveys and postcards by December 15th (the same deadline as Study 1). The winner was drawn and notified by phone. Debriefing forms were sent on December 29th, 1997 to those who sent in lottery entries and to the four listservs (see Appendix N).

Results and Discussion

Response Rate and Demographics

By the established deadline, 110 surveys were received (91 females, 19 males) from 53 different colleges and universities (see Table 17). Eighty-eight were returned via e-mail, and 22 were sent through standard mail services. All of the e-mailed surveys were

returned with the participants' e-mail address attached, and all but three of the mailed surveys had return addresses on the envelopes. Any information identifying the name of the participant was removed from all surveys by the experimenter.

Table 17
Source and Frequencies of Study 2 Participants

School:	N = 110
University of Texas	1
University of California at Berkely	5
UCLA	1
University of Michigan	7
University of Kentucky	7
California State University - Stanislaus	1
University of Kansas	1
Arizona State	4
Pennsylvania State	1
University of Illinois - Urbana-Champaign	5
University of Oregon	5
University of Waterloo	2
University of Vermont	1
Portland State	2
University of Texas - Austin	3
University of Pennsylvania	1
Washington University - St. Louis	1
University of Wisconsin - Madison	2
Texas Tech University	1
University of Denver	4
University of Santa Barbara	4
Brigham Young University	2
University of Oklahoma	1
Michigan State	1
University of Nevada	2
University of Illinois - Chicago	3
Ohio State University	2
Case Western Reserve University	1
George Fox University	1
Boston College	1
Dartmouth College	2
University of California - Davis	1
Brandeis College	2
Harvard University	1
SUNY - Buffalo	1
University of New Mexico	5
Boston University	1
McGill College	1
University of Cinncinati	1
Kansas State	1
University of Massachusetts - Amherst	1
Eastern Illinois University	1
West Chester University	1
University of Delaware	2

Table 17 (cont.)

University of Georgia	2
Northeastern University	4
University of Minnesota	1
Florida State University	1
Iowa State University	1
Canisius College	1
Vanderbuilt College	1
Columbus State	1

Participants ranged in age from 20 to 48 years (M = 28.56, SD = 6.06), however the majority of the population (80%) were in their 20s. They were predominantly single (70%), American (88.2%), and Christian (52.7%) (see Table 18). Unlike Study 1, participants in Study 2 were not evenly distributed among the four major divisions of schools: (1) engineering, physical sciences (1%), (2) liberal arts (74.3%), (3) life sciences, agriculture (8.3%), and (4) business (0%).

Table 18
Frequencies and Percentages on Age, Marital Status, School, Department Sex-Ratio, Degree Being Sought, Nationality, English Speaking, and Religious Affiliation for Overall Sample, Males, and Females (Study 2)

	Total: N = 110	Women: n = 91	Men: n = 19
Age	29 (SD = 6.1)	28 (6.0)	30 (6.6)
Marital Status:			
single	65 (59%)	56 (61%)	9 (47%)
married	33 (30%)	25 (28%)	8 (42%)
divorced	8 (7%)	7 (8%)	1 (5%)
other	4 (4%)	3 (3%)	1 (5%)
Single Status:			
not dating	18 (24%)	15 (23%)	3 (30%)
dating different people	6 (8%)	5 (8%)	1 (10%)
dating one person	37 (50%)	32 (50%)	5 (50%)
engaged	12 (16%)	11 (17%)	1 (10%)
School:			
Engineering and Physical Sciences	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Liberal Arts	81 (74%)	69 (77%)	12 (63%)
Life Sciences	9 (8%)	7 (8%)	2 (11%)
Other	18 (17%)	13 (14%)	5 (26%)
Male to Female Ratio In Department:			
mostly male	23 (21%)	17 (19%)	6 (32%)
mostly female	28 (26%)	23 (26%)	5 (26%)
equally balanced	57 (52%)	49 (54%)	8 (42%)

Table 18 (cont.)

Degree:			
Masters	12 (52%)	8 (9%)	4 (21%)
Doctorate	98 (46%)	83 (91%)	15 (79%)
Nationality			
American	97 (88%)	80 (88%)	17 (90%)
Chinese	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Canadian	3 (3%)	3 (3%)	
Japanese	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Danish	1 (1%)		1 (5%)
Asian-American	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Cuban-American	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Ukranian	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
German	2 (2%)	1 (1%)	1 (1%)
Asian	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Puerto Rican	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Native Speaker of English:			
YES	103 (94%)	86 (95%)	17 (90%)
NO	7 (6%)	5 (6%)	2 (11%)
Religious Affiliation			
Catholic	21 (23%)	19 (25%)	2 (12%)
Protestant	17 (18%)	11 (18%)	6 (35%)
Jewish	6 (7%)	3 (4%)	3 (18%)
Christian	11 (12%)	11 (14%)	2 (5%)
Buddhist	2 (2%)	2 (3%)	
Muslim	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Agnostic	24 (26%)	20 (26%)	4 (24%)
Atheist	11 (12%)	9 (12%)	2 (12%)

Preliminary Analyses, Scale Scoring, and Data Screening

Cronbach alphas were calculated for each of the scales. The standardized alphas were as follows: SEQ-M (.74 - victimization experience items; .76 - perpetration experience items; .94 - victimization label items; .96 - perpetration label items), Active-cognitive coping (.85), Active-behavioral coping (.81), Avoidant coping (.68), ATSH (.82), and PSH (.80).

All scales were calculated in the same manner as for Study 1 and were examined for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Similar to Study 1, thirty-six participants did not circle any of the behaviors listed on the SEQ-M as constituting sexual harassment. Therefore, when no items were circled, their scores were entered as missing data rather

than as a "no" response. For each of the other scales, missing data as estimated by calculating the mean of the available data and replacing the missing value with the mean.

Finally, basic tests concerning the assumptions underlying multiple regression analyses were conducted. Scatterplots comparing variable residuals and predictors were examined for each regression analysis. The variables appeared to reasonably meet the criteria concerning normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity, therefore, no transformations were conducted.

Labeling Sexually Harassing Behaviors

In order to test the hypotheses that women would label more behaviors as sexual harassment than men and that people with more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment would label more behaviors as sexual harassment, a standard multiple regression analysis was conducted with participant sex and knowledge scores as the independent variables to predict labeling frequency. Table 19 shows the variable correlations, the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (ß), the squared semipartial correlations (sr^2) and R, R^2, and adjusted R^2. There was only a trend for participant sex to predict labeling frequencies (sr^2 = .05, p = .079). Therefore, males and females did not significantly differ in their frequencies of labeling behaviors as "sexual harassment."

Table 19
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Frequency of Labeling Behaviors as "Sexual Harassment" from Participant Sex and Knowledge of the Legal Definition of Sexual Harassment (Study 2)

Variables	Label (DV)	Sex	Define	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.19			3.43	.22	.05	1.79*
Define	-.10	.21		-.51	-.15	.02	-1.20
Constant				21.28			9.66**
M	21.93	0.80	4.10			R^2 = .06	
SD	6.37	0.41	1.83			Adjusted R^2 = .03	
						R = .24	

Note: * p = .079 N = 69
** p < .001

Knowledge of the legal definition did not predict labeling. Being aware of the legal definition does not necessarily influence your labeling of specific behaviors as sexual harassment. Also, a few participants commented that certain behaviors were "sexual harassment" only under certain conditions (e.g., repetitious, committed by a professor). Yet, most circled the items anyway.

These effects are consistent with Study 1. Contrary to predictions, neither sex nor knowledge predicted overall labeling. Since these are very different samples, and Study 2 participants are from all over the country, it could be concluded that male and female graduate students' perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment are not as different as previously found in the research.

It was also predicted that sex differences in the labeling of behaviors as "sexual harassment" would be found for hostile environment forms of sexual harassment, but not necessarily for quid pro quo forms. Multiple regressions were performed to predict labeling of quid pro quo items and hostile work environment items with participant sex as the independent variable. Since knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment might also differentially affect quid pro quo versus hostile work environment sexual harassment, knowledge was also included as an independent variable.

There was no effect for sex predicting labeling of either quid pro quo or hostile work environment behaviors as "sexual harassment". Men and women did not vary in their labeling of behaviors as sexual harassment, even for more ambiguous behaviors (i.e. hostile work environment). Knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment was not a significant predictor of either quid pro quo or hostile work environment sexual harassment.

Unlike Study 1, it appears that sex does not predict labeling frequency for even the legal categories of sexual harassment. It is possible that this difference is due to the difference in the sampling method. While both samples were sent the same surveys, members of the SPSP group were informed by the moderator that the survey was about

sexual harassment. The term "sexual harassment" had been purposely left out of the survey until after participants' experiences were assessed, because researchers suggest that the term can influence people's perceptions of their experiences (Kidder, LaFleur, & Wells, 1995). In addition, since sexual harassment is currently a well-publicized issue, there was concern that the self-selection of the participants would be biased towards people who have special interest in the topic (rather than a more random sample). Since the majority of the participants received their survey either directly from SPSP or from a member of that listserv (see Table 20), it might be concluded that such a bias exists in the current sample.

Table 20
Survey Distributions Sites and Participant Response Rates (Study 2)

Source of Survey	n
AERA-GSL	6
GRADTALK	5
NAGSPA	2
SPSP	33
member SPSP	40
member other listserv	16

Exploratory Analysis: Alternative Predictors of Labeling

In order to investigate alternative predictors of labeling frequency, an exploratory regression analysis was conducted. Experience with education programs (i.e. yes, no), frequencies of victimization and perpetration, attitudes toward sexual harassment (ATSH), and proclivities to sexually harass (PSH) were included as possible predictors of labeling frequency.

The R value for the regression was significant ($F(5,68) = 4.94$, $p < .001$) (see Table 21). Participants' proclivities to sexually harass ($sr^2 = .07$, $p = .014$) and attitudes toward sexual harassment ($sr^2 = .17$, $p < .001$) significantly predicted labeling. A higher proclivity to sexually harass (r (74) = -.13) and higher tolerance for sexual harassment (r (74) = -.39) were related to labeling fewer behaviors as sexual harassment.

Table 21

Exploratory Regression Analyses Predicting Frequency of Labeling Behaviors as "Sexual Harassment" from Education Experience, Frequencies of Victimization and Perpetration, Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment and Proclivities to Sexually Harass (Study 2)

Variables	Label (DV)	Education	Victimization	Perpetration	ATSH	PSH
Education	-.09					
Victimization	-.07	.15				
Perpetration	-.30	.15	.48			
ATSH	-.39	-.13	.06	.33		
PSH	-.13	-.07	.20	.31	.75	
M	22.26	.34	3.60	1.07	1.95	2.01
SD	6.29	.48	3.18	1.63	.49	.54

	B	ß	sr^2	t
Education	-1.56	-.12	.01	-1.11
Victimization	.00	.00	.00	.00
Perpetration	-.75	-.19	.02	-1.52
ATSH	-8.17	-.64	.17	-3.92**
PSH	4.70	.40	.07	2.51*
Constant	30.09			9.95**

R^2 = .27 Adjusted R^2 = .21 R = .52

Note: * p = .014 N = 74
** p < .001

Consistent with the minimization-maximization model, it is in the best interest of potential perpetrators to minimize the issue of sexual harassment (via labeling fewer behaviors as "sexual harassment"). Regarding people's attitudes, it makes sense that those who are more tolerant of sexual harassment label few behaviors as such. They probably view many socio-sexual behaviors as normal and/or acceptable, whereas people who are less tolerant may be more sensitive to the effect that even seemingly casual behavior (e.g., crude sexual remarks) can have on someone.

As with Study 1, it is not possible to evaluate the quality of the sexual harassment education programs participants attended, and the nature of participants' experiences as victim and/or perpetrators may not influence judgments on a survey about hypothetical behaviors. Therefore, no conclusions about why these variables were not significant predictors of labeling frequency can be made. Since Study 3 was an analysis of a sexual harassment education program, at least one of these two issues will be addressed.

Victimization Experiences: Sex Differences

It was predicted that women would report more experiences with unwanted sexual behavior than men. In addition, it was expected that males would most likely be victimized by those with a higher (professors) or equal (graduate students) power status than those with a lower power status (undergraduate students); females, on the other hand, would be likely to be victimized by people at any power level. Finally, single participants were predicted to report more experiences with victimization than married participants.

In order to test these hypotheses, two analyses were conducted. First, a standard multiple regression was run with participant sex and marital status (single, married) as the independent variables to predict frequency of victimization. The R value for the regression was statistically significant ($F(2,106) = 3.81$, $p = .025$). Only marital status was a significant predictor of victimization (see Table 22), accounting for five percent of the variability in frequency of victimization.

Table 22
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Victimization from Participant Sex and Marital Status (Study 2)

Variables	Victim (DV)	Sex	Marital	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.14			.95	.11	.01	1.21
Marital	.23	.12		1.52	.22	.05	2.32*
Constant				1.91			2.36*
M	3.76	.83	.70			$R^2 = .07$	
SD	3.20	.38	.46			Adjusted $R^2 = .05$	
						R = .26*	

Note: * $p < .03$ $N = 109$

As in Study 1, being single was related to a higher frequency of victimization, but being male or female was not. In order to again explore whether socialization habits may be different for single and married people, an exploratory MANOVA was conducted with participants' score on socialization (i.e. number of types of people they reported socializing with) serving as the dependent variable, and marital status (married, single) and participant sex serving as the independent variables. There were no significant main effects or

interactions, therefore, no conclusions can be made about why single people are more at risk for victimization.

Second, a MANOVA was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable and frequency of perpetration by professors, graduate students, and undergraduate students as the three dependent variables. There was only a significant within-subjects effect of status of victim ($F(2,107) = 13.33$, $p < .001$, Pillais = .20). Three paired samples t-tests were conducted between the three dependent variables. A Bonferroni correction of .02 was used. Professors ($M = 1.36$, $SD = 1.83$) were perpetrators more than undergraduate students ($M = .62$, $SD = 1.36$) ($t(109) = 3.60$, $p < .001$). Graduate students ($M = 1.96$, $SD = 2.44$) were also more often perpetrators than undergraduates ($M = .62$, $SD = 1.36$) ($t(109) = 5.88$, $p < .001$). However, graduates and professors were equally often perpetrators. As mentioned previously, contra-power sexual harassment is rare; therefore, it makes sense that graduate students and professors were most often the perpetrators against the participants.

Victimization Experiences: Context

It was hypothesized that the sex-ratio of the participants' departments would predict victimization. People who are in a department dominated by the opposite sex would be more likely to be victimized than people who are among the dominant group or are in a department with an equal distribution of males and females. In addition, it is possible that while sex is not a significant predictor of overall victimization, the pattern of predictors may be different for men and women. Therefore, in order to address these two issues, standard multiple regressions were conducted separately for women and men using sex-ratio of the department (mostly male, mostly female, equal) and participant marital status as the predictors for frequency of victimization.

For females, the regression R value was significant ($F(3,84) = 4.93$, $p = .003$). Unlike Study 1, sex-ratio was a significant predictor of females' victimization in Study 2 (see Table 23). Females were more likely to be victimized in a mostly male department

than a mostly female department (sr^2 = .08, p =.007), and more likely to be victimized in a mostly female department than when the sex-ratio was equal (sr^2 = .04, p =.040).

Table 23
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Female Victimization from Department Sex-Ratio and Participant Marital Status (Study 2)

Variables	Victim (DV)	C1	C2	Marital	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex-Ratio								
Contrast 1	.19				1.59	.32	.08	2.77**
Contrast 2	.12	.33			.94	.24	.04	2.08*
Marital	.26	-.52	.14		1.77	.24	.06	2.34**
Constant					3.06			4.50**
M	3.97	-.06	-.31	.73			R^2 = .15	
SD	3.34	.67	.85	.45			Adjusted R^2 = .12	
							R = .39**	

Note: * $p < .05$ N = 88
** $p < .01$

Women are more vulnerable to victimization when they are amongst the non-dominant sex group. Pryor (1987) argued that the context is perhaps the most important factor in determining whether sexual harassment occurs. People are not going to harass if they feel they cannot get away with it. It is possible that women are more often victimized when they are in the minority because they are perceived as having fewer resources (e.g., co-workers to turn to for assistance) to resist the perpetrator. Also, in their sex-role spillover model of sexual harassment, Gutek and Morasch (1982) argue that women's sex-role may be more salient than their work role and that skewed sex-ratios in the workplace are associated with sex-role spillover and sexual harassment.

The finding that women were more likely to be victimized when they were in a mostly female department than in an equal sex-ratio department was unexpected. The number of females in these sex-ratio distributions (mostly male = 17, mostly female = 23, equal = 49) does not suggest a biased distribution of women in the departments where frequency of victimization was highest. However, once again, it is not possible to determine whether the overall sex-ratios are masking sex distributions in the departments (e.g., mostly male faculty + mostly female graduates = equal sex-ratio).

Participant marital status was also a significant predictor of females' victimization (sr^2 = .06, p =.022) (Table 23). This effect was similar to the entire sample, being single was related to higher frequencies of victimization. However, for males, neither sex-ratio of the department nor marital status were significant predictors of frequency of victimization. Therefore, despite sex not being a predictor of the overall frequency of victimization, it is apparent that the context (i.e. sex-ratio, marital status) is an important factor for women, but not for men. Since most causal models of sexual harassment deal only with male perpetrator-female victim dyads, they do not assist in explaining why the context does not predict males' victimization. It is possible that the current study lacks measures of situational variables that could predict male's victimization (e.g., access to social activities, school policies on socio-sexual behavior).

Study 1 had found that the pattern of predictors for male and female victimization differed only slightly. Being single was related to higher rates of victimization for both men and women. However, the sex-ratio of the participants' departments had a tendency to be related to males' victimization. There are three possible explanations for the difference in findings between Study 1 and Study 2: (a) different methodologies (mail vs. internet), (b) a possibly biased sample in Study 2 (knowing survey was about "sexual harassment"), and (c) different distributions of men and women between the two studies. However, it is also possible that either graduate students at UNH (Study 1) are not representative of graduate students around the country (Study 2) or that the internet is not a reliable medium for conducting research.

Consequences and Responses to Victimization

It was predicted that (a) female victims would be more likely to suffer from psychological and behavioral consequences than male victims, (b) female victims would be more likely to respond indirectly to the perpetrators' actions, while male victims would respond directly, and (c) people who rely on active coping strategies would be likely to respond directly, and avoidant strategies would be related to indirect responses. Standard

multiple regression analyses were conducted to test each of these hypotheses. Participant sex, active-cognitive coping, active-behavioral coping, and avoidant coping served as predictors of measures of participants' direct responses (e.g., file a complaint), indirect responses (e.g., avoid the perpetrator), psychological consequences (e.g., fear), and behavioral consequences (e.g., changes in eating habits).

Only the avoidant coping strategies scale was a significant predictor of behavioral consequences of victimization (sr^2 = .06, p = .018) (see Table 24). The R value for this regression was significant ($F(4,86)$ = 2.92, p = .026). Avoidant coping strategies was related to the experiencing of behavioral consequences for victims of unwanted sexual behavior (r (91) = .29).

Table 24
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Behavioral Consequences of Unwanted Sexual Behavior from Participants' Sex and Their Active-Cognitive (ACC) Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Coping Styles (Study 2)

Variables	Behave (DV)	Sex	ACC	ABC	AS	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.19					10.81	.19	.03	1.81
ACC	.16	.02				.21	.07	.00	.44
ABC	.16	.12	.74			-.09	-.03	.00	-.19
AS	.29	.01	.41	.43		1.60	.27	.06	2.41*
Constant						-9.63			-1.16
M	9.16	.85	20.12	20.90	4.51			R^2 = .12	
SD	21.12	.36	6.88	7.47	3.60			Adjusted R^2 = .08	
								R = .35*	

Note: * $p < .05$ $N = 91$

It is possible that people who avoid dealing with problems in their lives are suppressing their emotional stress to such an extent that it manifests itself as physical/behavioral symptoms. In a review of the literature on the effects of sexual harassment, Dansky and Kilpatrick (1997) point out that no one has systematically assessed the health-related effects of sexual harassment. However, Lazarus (1993) points out that denial (i.e. avoidance) can be dangerous, because it causes delays in seeking psychological and/or physical help. Problems left unattended can get worse and become more detrimental to the victim's health.

None of the other independent variables were significant predictors for any of the scales measuring frequency of responses and consequences. In all but one case, the effects of victims' experiences with unwanted sexual behavior and their responses to it were not related to their sex or coping strategies. It is possible that the lack of a prediction is due to the types of experiences victims reported. Overall, most reports of unwanted sexual behavior involved hostile work environment situations (see Table 25 for item frequencies), and it is unclear whether participants interpreted their experiences as constituting sexual harassment. As mentioned in Study 1, labeling one's own experiences as "sexual harassment" can have serious psychological consequences for the victim (Magley & DeNardo, 1996). However, the labeling on this survey was presumably about behaviors in general, not necessarily one's own perceptions of his/her experiences.

Table 25
Item Frequencies and Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations of Victimization of Graduate Students from the SEQ-M (Study 2)

Label:	N = 110
*subtle bribes to engage in sexual behavior	2 (2%)
*direct offer of reward for sexual behavior	0 (0%)
*actual rewards for sexual "cooperation"	1 (1%)
*subtle threats for not being sexually cooperative	1 (1%)
*direct threat for not being sexually cooperative	0 (0%)
*engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of promises or rewards	1 (1%)
*experienced negative consequences for refusing sexual activity	5 (5%)
*engaged in unwanted sexual behavior because of fear of punishment	2 (2%)
†suggestive stories, offensive jokes	48 (44%)
†crudely sexual remarks	26 (24%)
†seductive remarks about you	33 (30%)
†unwanted staring, leering, ogling	28 (26%)
†sexist or suggestive teaching material	10 (9%)
†treated differently because man/woman	57 (52%)
†sexist remarks	30 (28%)
†unwanted attempts to draw into a personal or sexual discussion	25 (23%)
†seductive behavior	45 (41%)
†unwanted sexual attention	27 (25%)
†unwanted attempts to establish romantic or sexual relationship	13 (12%)
†propositioned	14 (13%)

Table 25 (cont.)

†unwanted attempts to touch or fondle	14 (13%)
†forceful attempts to touch, fondle, or grab	2 (2%)
†indecent exposure	2 (2%)
†unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse resulting in crying, pleading, or physically struggling	0 (0%)
†attempted to force touching of genitals	0 (0%)
†used force to have intercourse	0 (0%)
sexually harassed	22 (20%)
raped	2 (2%)
Means and Standard Deviations:	
Overall: (26 items)	3.76 (3.20)
Quid Pro Quo: (8 items)	1.38 (5.72)
Hostile Work Environment: (18 items)	19.06 (16.41)

Note: * Items classified as "quid pro quo" sexual harassment
† Items classified as "hostile work environment" sexual harassment

Once again, it was considered that while participant sex might not be an accurate predictor of responses and consequences, the patterns of predictions for men and women might be different. Therefore, a set of regressions using active-cognitive coping, active-behavioral coping, and avoidant coping served as predictors of measures of participants' direct responses, indirect responses, psychological consequences, and behavioral consequences were conducted separately for women and men.

For females, only the avoidant coping strategies scale was a significant predictor of behavioral consequences of victimization ($\underline{sr}^2 = .07$, $\underline{p} = .021$) (see Table 26). The $\underline{R}$ value for this regression was significant ($\underline{F}(3,73) = 2.70$, $\underline{p} = .05$). Avoidant coping strategies were related to the experiencing of behavioral consequences for victims of unwanted sexual behavior ($\underline{r}$ (77) = .31). For males, this was not true. Therefore, it is the females who avoid dealing with problems in their lives and are suffering from physical/behavioral symptoms. No other variables were significant for females.

Table 26
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Females' Behavior Consequences of Unwanted Sexual Behavior from Their Active-Cognitive (ACC) Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Coping Styles (Study 2)

Variables	Behave (DV)	ACC	ABC	AS	B	ß	sr^2	t
ACC	.17				.35	.11	.01	.64
ABC	.15	.75			-.17	-.06	.00	- .33
AS	.31	.37	.43		1.77	.29	.07	2.37**
Constant					-.76			-.10
M	10.82	20.18	21.29	4.52			R^2 = .10	
SD	22.58	6.90	7.67	3.73			Adjusted R^2 = .06	
							R = .32*	

Note: * p < .05 N = 77
** p = .021

In the analyses for male participants, only the active-behavioral coping strategies scale was a significant predictor of indirect responses to victimization (sr^2 = .13, p = .045) (see Table 27). The R value for this regression was significant (F(3,10) =9.75, p = .003). Active-behavioral coping strategies were negatively related to the indirect responses of victims of unwanted sexual behavior (r (14) = -.81). Together, all of the independent variables accounted for 67% of the variability in males' indirect responses.

Table 27
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Males' Indirect Responses to Unwanted Sexual Behavior from Their Active-Cognitive (ACC) Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Coping Styles (Study 2)

Variables	Indirect (DV)	ACC	ABC	AS	B	ß	sr^2	t
ACC	-.59				-1.50	-.51	.08	-1.78
ABC	-.44	.73			-1.82	-.53	.13	-2.29*
AS	-.36	.71	.51		1.24	.17	.01	.76
Constant					76.14			6.76**
M	17.86	19.79	18.79	4.43			R^2 = .75	
SD	20.64	6.99	6.05	2.88			Adjusted R^2 = .67	
							R = .86**	

Note: * p < .05 N = 14
** p = .003

Males who took behavioral actions to deal with life problems were less likely to react indirectly to the perpetrator's behavior. This was not true for females, nor of males

from Study 1. There are a few possible explanations for this effect. There were only 14 males who reported at least one experience with unwanted sexual behavior, and these males responded to the internet survey; therefore, their experiences may be unique and biased due to the methodology utilized in Study 2. In addition, the measure of indirect responses consisted of only four items (Appendix D); these may not account for the variety of responses men and women have to unwanted sexual behavior.

Exploratory Analysis: Victimization, Coping, and Attitudes

The coping strategies scales assessed participants' general coping styles, not necessarily ones related to experiences with unwanted sexual behavior. Therefore, these styles may have developed as a result of participants' experiences or made them more or less vulnerable to victimization. The same could also be said for participants' attitudes toward sexual harassment and their proclivities to harass. In order to examine whether these factors could predict victimization, an exploratory regression analysis was conducted with participants scores on the ATSH, PSH, and three coping sub-scales as the predictors of frequency of victimization.

None of the independent variables were significant predictors of victimization. In Study 1, participants' score on avoidant coping strategies was a significant predictor of victimization (Table 13). Once again, there are differences between the samples in Study 1 and Study 2 in both composition and methodological assessment which may account for the different findings.

Perpetration Experiences

Finally, it was predicted that participants who reported perpetrating more unwanted sexual behavior would most likely be male, married, have higher proclivities to harass, and be more tolerant of sexual harassment. In addition, females would most likely harass people of a lower power status (undergraduate students), while males would harass people of an equal (graduate students) or lower power status. In order to test these hypotheses, two analyses were conducted. First, a standard multiple regression analysis was run

including participants' sex, marital status (single, married), attitudes toward sexual harassment (ATSH), and proclivities to commit harassment (PSH) as predictors of participants' reported frequencies of perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior.

None of the independent variables were significant predictors of frequency of perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior. In Study 1, males were more often perpetrators than females. The lack of any findings for perpetration in Study 2 could be due to method of assessment. Participants were surveyed over the internet, and most returned their surveys with their names attached. While they had been assured that their names would be removed by the experimenter, participants may not have felt comfortable reporting their own acts of perpetration. The internet is not private. Messages can be intercepted and/or distributed anywhere. Participants may have feared that their confessions could come back and harm them. Therefore, the reliability of participants' responses are in question.

Second, a MANOVA was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable and frequency of victimization of professors, graduate students, and undergraduate students as the three dependent variables. There was a significant within-subjects effect of status of victim ($F(2,107) = 11.69$, $p < .001$, Pillais = .18). In order to determine where the differences were, three paired samples t-tests were conducted between the three dependent variables. A Bonferroni correction of .02 served as the significance cut-off. Graduates ($M = .86$, $SD = 1.49$) were victimized more than professors ($M = .08$, $SD = .31$) ($t(109) = -5.84$, $p < .001$). Graduates ($M = .86$, $SD = 1.49$) were also more often victims than undergraduates ($M = .15$, $SD = .43$) ($t(109) = 5.23$, $p < .001$). However, professors and undergraduates were equally victimized.

Graduate students were most often the targets of unwanted sexual behavior by other graduate students (i.e. the participants). It is possible that these graduate students were aware of their professional positions relative to professors and undergraduates; therefore, they may have felt more comfortable engaging in socio-sexual behavior with their peers. However, since the survey was not truly anonymous (i.e. internet privacy), participants

may have only admitted to the behaviors they considered less problematic for themselves if the information was passed on.

Since previous analyses demonstrated differences in the patterns of the predictors for men and women, separate regression analyses were conducted for men and women. Marital status, PSH, and ATSH scores were included to predict frequency of perpetration. For females, the R value was significant ($F(3,86) = 3.89$, $p = .012$). ATSH was a significant predictor of perpetration ($sr^2 = .04$, $p = .046$) (see Table 28). Higher tolerances for sexual harassment were related to higher frequencies of perpetration. There were no other significant predictors.

Table 28
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Females' Frequency of Perpetration from Marital Status, Proclivities to Sexually Harass (PSH), and Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH) (Study 2)

Variables	Perpetrate (DV)	Marital	PSH	ATSH
Marital	.13			
PSH	.23	-.13		
ATSH	.31	-.04	.65	
M	1.12	.72	1.95	1.91
SD	1.77	.45	.52	.45

	B	ß	sr^2	t	
Marital	.59	.15	.02	1.46	$R^2 = .12$
PSH	.25	.07	.00	.54	Adjusted $R^2 = .09$
ATSH	1.06	.27	.04	2.02*	$R = .35$**
Constant	-1.82			-2.04*	

Note: * $p < .05$ $N = 90$
** $p = .011$

For males, there were no significant predictors of perpetration. As in Study 1, the findings in Study 2 for males and females suggest that either women's attitudes are more related to their behavior than men's, or, perhaps, the ATSH scale is better at assessing women's attitudes in relation to their behavior. It is also possible that male's socio-sexual behavior is intended to be "friendly," while the females engage in such behavior with different motives (e.g., power abuse). Therefore, men's socio-sexual behavior (as assessed by the SEQ-M) is not related to their tolerance for "sexual harassment."

Studies 1 and 2 were comparable in their lack of finding sex as a significant predictor for labeling and experiencing harassing behavior. While the two studies involved the use of the same survey, the different distribution methods (i.e. mail vs. internet) brings into question the direct comparability of the two samples. Study 2 represented a new step in social psychological research. The internet has the capability of reaching people from all over the world. However, issues of privacy and anonymity make the use of the internet as a reliable research tool problematic.

IV. STUDY 3

A major step towards eliminating sexual harassment has been the widespread use of educational programs by businesses and schools. The belief is that if people are informed about the issue, sexual harassment is less likely to occur. However, this assumption goes unchecked. In her review of rape prevention programs, Lonsway (1996) discovered that some studies (e.g., Berg, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1997) aimed at reducing men's rape-supportive attitudes by inducing empathy towards the victim actually had the reverse effect; hearing audio tapes of victims' accounts of their rapes sexually aroused some men. Similar dangers exist for sexual harassment education programs. However, no empirical study has been done to assess their outcomes (Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997). In order to rectify this large gap in the sexual harassment literature, the final study evaluated the effectiveness of a sexual harassment education program conducted for new graduate assistants at the University of New Hampshire. Participants' knowledge and attitudes concerning sexual harassment were measured before and after (two month follow-up) the education program to determine whether the program successfully (a) increased graduate students' awareness of sexual harassment (e.g., legal and behavioral definitions, school policy), and (b) changed their attitudes about sexual harassment by making them less tolerant of such behavior. The following hypotheses were proposed for the examination of the effectiveness of a sexual harassment education program for graduate students:

1. It was predicted that the sexual harassment education program would (a) increase participants' knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment and the university's policies and procedures for reporting sexual harassment, (b) increase the number of behaviors participants would label as sexual harassment, and (c) decrease participants' tolerance of sexual harassment. Since women are typically more sensitive to

and aware of the issue of sexual harassment than men (e.g., Kenig & Ryan, 1986), it was expected that there would be a larger change for males in the sample than females.

2. Participants' level of self-monitoring was expected to influence their perceptions of the effectiveness of the education program. More specifically, those who were high self-monitors would report that the program had a more profound effect on them than low self-monitors. It was unclear whether self-monitoring would have influenced the actual effectiveness of the program (i.e. changes in knowledge, attitudes). Therefore, no predictions will be made about the possible relation of self-monitoring to actual changes in perceptions of sexual harassment.

Since Study 3 represented the first empirical outcome assessment of a sexual harassment education program, no further predictions were formally made. However, several exploratory regressions were conducted in order to assess possible explanations for changes (or lack there of) in participants' knowledge, awareness, labeling, or attitudes concerning sexual harassment.

In addition, while the main focus of Study 3 was different from the previous two studies, most of the same information assessed in Studies 1 and 2 were included in Study 3. Therefore, Study 3 was also a replication of the earlier studies. As a result, the same analyses conducted in Studies 1 and 2 were run in Study 3 in order to test the following hypotheses:

1. It was predicted that females would label more behaviors as constituting sexual harassment than males. Differences between men and women's judgments were expected to be more pronounced for potentially hostile environment sexual harassment than for quid pro quo sexual harassment behaviors.

2. People who have more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment would label more behaviors as harassment. In addition, would have more knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment than men.

3. Women would report more experiences with victimization than men.

4. Participants would most likely be victimized by those with a higher or equal power status than those with a lower status. However, females would be more likely to be victimized by someone at any power level (professor, graduate, or undergraduate), while males would be more likely victimized only by professors (i.e. higher power status).

5. Participants who are single and/or work in a department dominated by the opposite sex would most likely be victimized.

6. Female victims would be more likely to suffer from psychological and behavioral symptoms than male victims.

7. Female victims would be more likely to take indirect action, while male victims would be more likely to take direct action against the perpetrator.

8. People who rely on active coping strategies would be likely to take direct action against the perpetrator; avoidant strategies would be related to indirect action.

9. It was expected that participants who reported perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior would most likely be male, married, have higher proclivities to harass and be more tolerant of sexual harassment. Females would be more likely to harass people with a lower power status, while males would harass people at an equal or lower power status.

Method

Participant Recruitment and Contact

New graduate assistants at the University of New Hampshire were required to take part in a day-long orientation program which included a one hour program on sexual harassment. These students were recruited for the present study. At the beginning of the sexual harassment education program, all attendants were informed that a study was being conducted and that surveys would be handed out. Those who chose to participate would complete the surveys.

Procedure

The first part of this study was conducted in a large lecture hall on the university campus (capacity approximately 300). At the beginning of the sexual harassment program,

graduate students received an envelope containing an informed consent (see Appendix O), a five-page survey, and a one-page survey. The informed consent informed graduate students that the survey was part of an assessment of the effectiveness of sexual harassment education programs, and that the three-part survey would be administered at three different times (before the program, immediately following the program, two months after the program). Graduate students were then informed of the lottery for $100 being conducted for those who elected to participate in the study. To qualify for the lottery, participants were told that they had to participant all three times in the study. The experimenter's home phone number and e-mail address were also included in the informed consent form to allow participants to ask any questions concerning the survey.

Those who agreed to participate completed the informed consent form, passed it in to the experimenter (i.e. keeping it separate from the surveys), and completed the five-page survey (Part 1). Participants were instructed to list the last six digits of their social security numbers on the survey so that all three administrations of the survey could be matched up.

The first survey was a pre-treatment (Time-1) assessment of participants' (a) demographical information (see Appendix P), (b) definitions of "sexual harassment," (c) labeling of 27 behaviors as constituting sexual harassment or not (see Appendix Q) (the list paralleled those behaviors described in the SEQ-M), (d) previous experience with sexual harassment education programs (Appendix E), (e) general awareness of university policies and procedures regarding sexual harassment (Appendix F), and (f) attitudes toward sexual harassment (ATSH, Appendix H).[9] After participants completed this survey, the sexual harassment education program began.

The program was presented by a representative of the university's Affirmative Action office (Elizabeth Lewis) and a graduate student (Kimberly Smirles). The 45-minute program included information concerning (a) how to define sexual harassment, (b) behaviors which can constitute sexual harassment, and (c) how to report a case of sexual harassment. Copies of the university's sexual harassment policies and procedures were

handed out. Also, written scenarios were used to stimulate discussion (see Appendix R). All graduate students attending the program were encouraged to ask questions and give their own perceptions of sexual harassment. Discussions between the facilitators and the graduate students focused on ethical behavior (e.g., dating undergraduates) and the criteria for legally categorizing behaviors as sexual harassment. Following the program, participants completed the one-page survey. Part 2 was a post-treatment assessment of their reactions to the program and the presenters (i.e. subjective assessment of effectiveness) (see Appendix S).[10]

Two months later, a follow-up survey (Part 3) was mailed to the 134 participants' department mail boxes (their names having been obtained from the informed consent forms) along with an addressed return envelope and postcard. The survey assessed the same information as the pre-treatment survey on several variables (Time-2) (definitions, awareness of policies and procedures, attitudes toward sexual harassment). In addition, the survey contained a measure of participants' previous experiences as victims and perpetrators with unwanted sexual behavior (SEQ-M; Appendix C), general coping strategies (Appendix G), proclivities to sexually harass (PSH; Appendix I), and tendencies to self-monitor their own behavior (SMS; see Appendix T). To support the expectation that changes over the two month period were most likely due to the original sexual harassment program, there was also a question about whether participants were involved in any other sexual harassment programs in the past two months.

Participants were asked to return the survey via campus mail by December 15th. In order to make themselves eligible for the $100 lottery drawing, participants put their name, local address, and home phone number on the postcard and sent it via campus mail at the same time they mailed their survey. To reassure the graduate students that the surveys were anonymous and confidential, there were separate return addresses for the survey and postcard; as with Study 1, surveys went to the experimenter's department mail box, and postcards went to a mail box in the Memorial Union Building (i.e. not affiliated with any

department or office on campus). Debriefing forms were mailed to all 134 original participants.

Measures

Self-Monitoring Scale. The Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS; Snyder, 1974, 1987) consists of 18 true-false self-descriptive statements that describe concern with situational appropriateness of self- presentation, attention to social cues to situationally appropriate self-presentation, ability to control expressive behavior, use of this ability, and situational shifts in overt self-presentation. People who are high self-monitors tend to endorse items like "In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons." Low self-monitors often acknowledge that "I can only argue for ideas which I already believe."

Items on the SMS are scored in the direction of high self-monitoring. Items scored by participants in the high self-monitoring direction are given a score of 1, while items scored in the low self-monitoring directions are given a score of 0. The total score is taken for all 18 items (ranging from 0 to 18) to determine participants' level of self-monitoring. Snyder (1987) reported the SMS to be a reliable scale (coefficient alpha =.70).

Results and Discussion

Survey Return Rate

One hundred and forty surveys were handed out at the beginning of the session in envelopes. One hundred and thirty-four surveys were returned at the end of the education session (79 females, 52 males, 3 unidentified). Participants ranged in age from 21 to 52 years ($M = 27.71$, $SD = 7.49$), however the majority of the population (78%) were in their 20s. They were predominantly single (60.5%), American (85.5%), and Christian (58.5%) (see Table 29). Participants were evenly distributed among three of the four major divisions of schools: (1) engineering, physical sciences (27.3%), (2) liberal arts (24.2%), (3) life sciences, agriculture (33.6%), and (4) business (4.7%).

Table 29

Frequencies and Percentages on Age, Marital Status, School, Department Sex-Ratio, Degree Being Sought, Nationality, English Speaking, and Religious Affiliation for Overall Sample, Males, and Females (Study 3)

	Total: N = 134	Women: n = 79	Men: n = 52
Age	28.25 (SD = 7.5)	28.85 (8.8)	25.98 (4.6)
Marital Status:			
single	78 (61%)	45 (57%)	33 (66%)
married	41 (32%)	25 (32%)	16 (32%)
separated	3 (2%)	3 (4%)	
divorced	4 (3%)	4 (5%)	
other	3 (2%)	2 (3%)	1 (2%)
Single Status:			
not dating	25 (30%)	14 (28%)	11 (33%)
dating different people	12 (15%)	8 (16%)	4 (12%)
dating one person	33 (40%)	20 (40%)	13 (39%)
engaged	10 (12%)	6 (12%)	4 (12%)
School:			
Engineering and Physical Sciences	35 (27%)	11 (14%)	24 (48%)
Liberal Arts	31 (24%)	24 (31%)	7 (14%)
Life Sciences	43 (34%)	28 (36%)	15 (30%)
Business	6 (5%)	3 (4%)	3 (6%)
Other	13 (10%)	12 (15%)	1 (2%)
Male to Female Ratio In Department:			
mostly male	47 (37%)	25 (33%)	22 (45%)
mostly female	35 (28%)	28 (36%)	7 (14%)
equally balanced	30 (24%)	18 (23%)	12 (25%)
Degree:			
Masters	89 (70%)	54 (68%)	35 (71%)
Other	37 (29%)	23 (29%)	14 (29%)
Nationality			
American	112 (86%)	68 (86%)	44 (85%)
Asian	15 (12%)	9 (11%)	6 (12%)
Indian	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Romanian	2 (2%)		2 (4%)
Nepali	1 (1%)	1 (1%)	
Native Speaker of English:			
YES	112 (87%)	69 (87%)	43 (86%)
NO	17 (13%)	10 (13%)	7 (14%)
Religious Affiliation			
Catholic	24 (24%)	17 (32%)	7 (16%)
Protestant	22 (16%)	16 (30%)	6 (14%)
Jewish	4 (4%)	1 (2%)	3 (7%)
Christian	13 (10%)	5 (9%)	8 (18%)
Buddhist	2 (2%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Agnostic	13 (10%)	5 (9%)	8 (18%)
Atheist	11 (8%)	5 (9%)	6 (14%)

Of the 134 participants (based on returned informed consent forms), only 125 had addresses that could be located. A reminder notice was sent out to all participants, because the return rate for the two month follow-up survey was low (n = 43). Another 11 surveys were returned after the notice went out. Of the 125 surveys mailed, 54 were returned (43% return rate). From the sample, only 52 participants completed all three surveys, 77 completed Parts 1 and 2, three completed only Part 2, and two completed only Part 3.

It is unclear why the return rate was not higher. It was expected that participants would be more likely to return Part 3, since it was required to qualify for the lottery and they had already completed Parts 1 and 2 (i.e. escalation of commitment). However, the return rate was higher for Study 3 (43%) than for Study 1 (25%), suggesting that participants in Study 3 did feel more committed than participants in the other study to finish the experiment.

Preliminary Analyses, Scale Scoring, and Data Screening

Cronbach alphas were calculated for each of the scales. The standardized alphas were as follows: labeling behaviors at Time-1 (.94), SEQ-M (.88 - victimization experience items; .64 - perpetration experience items; .96 - victimization label items, i.e. Time-2 labeling; .96 - perpetration label items), Active-cognitive coping (.97), Active-behavioral coping (.97), Avoidant coping (.77), ATSH (Time-1 = .90; Time-2 = .92), PSH (.94), and SMS (.69).

Scales that had also been used in Studies 1 and 2 were calculated in the same manner. However, Study 3 included additional scales. Participants' labeling of behaviors at Time-1 were recoded from a Likert-scale measure to a yes or no response, so that it would correspond to the Time-2 labeling from the SEQ-M.[11] Participants' knowledge of university policies and procedures at Times 1 and 2 were calculated by taking the mean of their responses to the seven items on a 4-point Likert scale, with a higher score indicating more awareness. Their satisfaction with the program was calculated by taking the mean of the seven items concerning their perceptions of the program (e.g., "How has this program

affected your general awareness or concern for others?"); while the meaning of the 5-point Likert scale numbers differed (e.g., 1 - much less aware or concerned to 5 - much more aware or concerned), each reflected the same overall judgment (i.e. higher scores indicating more satisfaction with the program). Finally, satisfaction with the presenters was measured along nine different variables (e.g., "well-prepared," "answered questions effectively") on a 5-point Likert scale (1 - "strongly disagree" to 5 - "strongly agree"). The mean of the 18 items was taken for an overall calculation of satisfaction with the presenters.

All scales were examined for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. For each of the scales, missing data as estimated by calculating the mean of the available data and replacing the missing value with the mean.

Finally, basic tests concerning the assumptions underlying multiple regression analyses were conducted. Scatterplots comparing variable residuals and predictors were examined for each regression analysis. The variables appeared to reasonably meet the criteria concerning normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity, so no transformations were conducted.

Knowledge of Sexual Harassment Over Time

The prediction that the sexual harassment education program would increase participants' knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment and the procedures for reporting sexual harassment was tested by conducting two repeated measures MANOVAs with participant sex as the independent variable.

The first analysis included Time-1 and Time-2 measures of participants' knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment as the dependent variables. However, only four participants wrote open-ended definitions of sexual harassment at both times (Time-1: $\underline{n} = 19$; Time-2: $\underline{n} = 6$); therefore, further analyses excluded this variable. It was unfortunate that participants' knowledge of the legal definition could not be explored. It is possible that due to the time constraints of the education program, participants felt rushed

and did not want to take the time to write out definitions. However, their lack of response at Time-2 is more difficult to explain, because participants had plenty of time to complete the survey (3 weeks). Since the participants were aware that the purpose of the study was to assess the effectiveness of the program, it is possible that they were reluctant to respond to the question unless they were sure of themselves; while the surveys were anonymous, a need for a positive self-presentation may have existed for the participants.

The second repeated measures analysis included Time-1 and Time-2 measures of participants' awareness of the university's policies and procedures on sexual harassment as the dependent variables. There was no effect for sex; however, there was a significant within-subjects effect for time ($F(1,50) = 30.56$, $p < .001$). Awareness increased from before the program (Time-1: $M = 1.95$, $SD = .79$) to two months afterwards (Time-2: $M = 2.64$, $SD = .70$). None of the participants had taken part in sexual harassment education programs since the orientation program. Therefore, the program may have made participants more aware of the university's policies and procedures concerning sexual harassment. In fact, participants reported being satisfied with both the program ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .40$) and the presenters ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .69$). A consumer measure of satisfaction might be indicative of actual long-term effects an education program has on individuals.

Labeling Sexual Harassment Over Time

To test whether the number of behaviors participants label as sexual harassment would increase over time, a repeated measures MANOVA was conducted using sum scores of labeling at Time-1 and Time-2 as the dependent variables and participant sex as the independent variable. Once again, there was no effect for sex, but there was a significant within-subjects effect for time ($F(1,38) = 7.27$, $p = .010$). Participants labeled more behaviors as "sexual harassment" at Time-1 ($M = 23.45$, $SD = 3.92$) than at Time-2 ($M = 20.08$, $SD = 8.06$).

It was not expected that participants would label fewer behaviors after participating in the education program. However, two possible explanations exist. First, while the lack

of open-ended definitions of sexual harassment precludes any assessment of increases in knowledge of the legal definition, knowing more about sexual harassment does not necessarily make someone more inclusive of behaviors as harassing. For example, people may have considered crude sexual remarks to be sexual harassment before being aware that a pattern of such behavior is necessary before it can legally constitute sexual harassment; therefore, they may not have labeled it at Time-2.

Second, Time-1 and Time-2 measures of labeling were different. At Time-1, participants rated a list of behaviors. The Time-2 assessment involved circling items from the SEQ-M, a scale on which they had just indicated their own experiences with these behaviors (consistent with Studies 1 and 2). While participants were asked to objectively label behaviors on the SEQ-M, it is possible that their judgments were influenced by seeing their own experiences listed on paper in front of them.

Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment Over Time

A final repeated measures MANOVA was conducted to test whether the sexual harassment education program decreased participants' tolerance of sexual harassment using scores on the ATSH scale at Time-1 and Time-2 as the dependent variables and sex as the independent variable. There was a significant effect for sex ($F(2,51) = 5.31$, $p = .008$, Pillais = .17) at the multivariate and univariate levels for ATSH at Time-1 ($F(1,52) = 9.25$, $p = .004$) and Time-2 ($F(1,52) = 9.12$, $p = .004$). Males were more tolerant of sexual harassment than females both before ($M = 2.49$, $SD = .49$; $M = 2.05$, $SD = .55$, respectively) and two months after ($M = 2.53$, $SD = .53$; $M = 2.09$, $SD = .53$) the sexual harassment education program. However, participants' tolerance did not change over time as predicted.

The sexual harassment education program was not successful at reducing participants' tolerance of sexual harassment. While ATSH scores do indicate low levels of tolerance of sexual harassment overall, the lack of change is not necessarily due to a floor effect for two reasons. First, the current program did have numerous problems, mostly

revolving around two issues-- time and size. The program was less than one hour long. People had a great many questions which could not be addressed during that period, the presenters were not able to finish going over the scenarios, and the actual procedures for reporting sexual harassment were only superficially explained. The room was very crowed with over 160 students sitting closely together. It is difficult to carry on discussions in such a large group, and people may not have felt as comfortable asking questions or voicing their opinions under these circumstances. Ideally, programs would be conducted for small groups over a longer period of time (preferably multiple short sessions rather than one long session).

Second, as reflected in the continued difference between men and women in their tolerance of sexual harassment, attitudes are often deeply ingrained in our society. For example, girls and boys are socialized differently from the day they are born when the girl is put in a pink blanket and the boy in a blue blanket. With a lifetime of learning, it is unlikely that a one hour program will radically change people's belief systems. There is no isolated attitude towards sexual harassment. People's beliefs about this issue are connected to their beliefs about gender (i.e. how men and women are supposed to behave) and socio-sexual behavior (e.g., MacKinnon, 1979; Lips, 1996). Programs aimed at decreasing sexual harassment must start at an early age and deal with issues of gender-typed behavior. Education about laws and policies may help reduce the prevalence of sexual harassment, but it does not necessarily change the people's attitudes (e.g., I won't do it because I could get in trouble, but I still think I have the right to harass my employees). Educators must ask themselves if ending sexually harassing behavior is sufficient, even if discriminatory attitudes towards men and women exist.

Changes Over Time

While the preceding analyses suggest that changes over time were due to the sexual harassment education program, such conclusions are tenuous. Even though it was the only program they participated in during their tenure at the University of New Hampshire, it is

possible that other events influenced their knowledge and perceptions of sexual harassment. For example, since sexual harassment is a serious concern in academia (e.g., Traux, 1996), participants may have engaged in casual conversations with people in their departments about the issue. Also, media exposure has been extensive with such cases as Paula Jones and the military scandals. Further studies should include follow-up measures sooner after the program, in addition to long-term assessments.

Self-Monitoring

To examine whether participants who are high self-monitors would report that the education program had a more profound effect on them than low self-monitors, a correlation was conducted between SMS scores and subjective program and presenter evaluation scores taken after the program's completion. Self-monitoring was not related to participants' reported satisfaction with the program or presenters. Since the surveys were anonymous, perhaps participants who were high self-monitors felt they could be honest about their feelings towards the program and the presenters. In addition, evaluations were high overall. Even if high self-monitors felt they should give the program a good evaluation, it may not have been inconsistent with how they (and low-self monitors) felt.

Since sexual harassment is an issue that often breeds "political correctness" in people's behavior, people's tendency to self-monitor their behavior would be expected to be a factor in their perceptions and/or judgments. Therefore, further exploratory analyses will examine self-monitoring as a possible predictor.

Exploratory Analyses: Predictors of Change

Since it was found that participants' awareness of university policies and procedures increased and their labeling of behaviors as "sexual harassment" decreased over time, two exploratory multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to assess what variables might have been related to these changes.

The following variables were included as possible predictors of awareness at Time-2: previous experience with sexual harassment education programs (prior to Time-1),

frequency of victimization and perpetration, frequency of labeling (Time 1 and 2), attitudes toward sexual harassment (Time 1 and 2), satisfaction with program and the presenters, coping strategies (active-cognitive, active-behavioral, avoidant), proclivity to sexually harass, self-monitoring, and awareness (Time-1). The R value was significant ($F(15,24) = 2.11$, $p = .050$). Frequency of victimization ($sr^2 = .15$, $p = .008$) and attitudes toward sexual harassment after the program (Time-2) ($sr^2 = .12$, $p = .017$) were significant predictors of the increase in awareness of policies and procedures (see Table 30). Higher frequencies of victimization and higher tolerance of sexual harassment were related to lower levels of awareness (r (40) = -.27 and -.32, respectively). Together, all of the variables accounted for 30% of the variability in participants' awareness.

Table 30
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Awareness of University Policies and Procedures (Time-2) from Education, Frequencies of Victimization and Perpetration, Frequencies of Labeling Behaviors as Sexual Harassment (Times 1 and 2), Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH) (Times 1 and 2), Satisfaction with Education Program and Presenters, Coping Strategies (Active-Cognitive, Active-Behavioral, Avoidant), Proclivity to Sexually Harass (PSH), Self-Montoring Scale (SMS), and Awareness (Time-1) (Study 3)

	Aware2 (DV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Educ	.01														
2 Victim	-.27	.05													
3 Perp	-.10	-.28	.52												
4 Label1	.17	.09	.10	-.01											
5 Label2	.33	.03	.06	-.02	.56										
6 ATSH1	-.03	-.44	-.21	.07	-.53	-.36									
7 ATSH2	-.32	-.08	-.31	-.02	-.43	-.38	.69								
8 Program	.05	-.03	.02	-.14	.26	.17	-.09	-.19							
9 Present	-.15	.32	.09	-.05	.28	.08	-.40	-.12	.37						
10 ACC	-.25	.32	.23	.17	-.06	-.15	-.23	-.11	-.06	.08					
11 ABC	-.05	.39	.33	.30	-.09	-.06	-.13	-.09	-.04	.17	.78				
12 AS	-.30	.19	-.02	-.11	-.40	-.44	.08	-.01	.05	.12	.40	.23			
13 PSH	-.25	-.21	-.22	.03	-.30	-.33	.62	.79	-.01	-.01	-.02	.04	.08		
14 SMS	-.01	-.17	.25	.46	-.31	-.25	.25	.10	-.02	-.29	.01	.02	.10	.14	
15 Aware1	.21	-.04	-.10	-.04	.00	.04	-.18	-.35	.18	.24	-.16	-.10	.08	-.35	-.02

Table 30 (cont.)

Variable	Mean (SD)	B	ß	sr^2	t	
1	.53 (.51)	.41	.32	.04	1.42	
2	4.18 (4.14)	-.08	-.53	.15	-2.90***	
3	.97 (1.51)	.03	.08	.00	.35	
4	23.45 (3.92)	.00	-.00	.00	-.02	
5	20.08 (8.06)	.01	.11	.01	.62	
6	2.14 (.56)	.61	.53	.06	1.80	R^2 = .57
7	2.19 (.56)	-1.00	-.87	.12	-2.58**	Adjusted R^2 = .30
8	3.51 (.39)	-.04	-.03	.00	-.15	R = .75*
9	4.36 (.54)	-.05	-.04	.00	-.20	
10	19.55 (7.69)	-.02	-.25	.02	-.91	
11	19.30 (9.48)	.02	.25	.01	.83	
12	4.15 (2.67)	-.08	-.34	.05	-1.71	
13	2.00 (.64)	.09	.09	.00	.34	
14	7.80 (3.21)	.03	.13	.01	.70	
15	2.06 (.80)	.01	.02	.00	.11	
Constant		3.80			2.36*	

Note: * $p < .05$ $N = 40$
** $p = .017$
*** $p = .008$

People who are more tolerant of sexual harassment are possibly less concerned with its policies and procedures (i.e. It's not a problem, so why do I need to know this information?). To them, socio-sexual behavior in graduate school is "normal" and/or acceptable. Additionally, people who are more tolerant may not view themselves as potential victims (i.e. That would never happen to me, so I don't need to be concerned with how to report it.).

It is unclear why victimization predicted awareness negatively. Magley and DeNardo (1996) argued that the label of "victim" can be stigmatizing and have detrimental effects on women. Perhaps those participants who experience more unwanted sexual behavior do not seek out information about sexual harassment, because it would confirm their victim status. Since the direction of this relationship cannot be determined, it is also possible that people who are less aware of the rules that protect them are easier targets for perpetrators. However, it is doubtful that there would be a direct causal relationship here. It is more likely that other variables are mediating the effect (e.g., self-confidence, control over one's situation).

In order to predict labeling at Time-2, previous experience with sexual harassment education programs (prior to Time-1), frequency of victimization and perpetration, attitudes toward sexual harassment (Time 1 and 2), satisfaction with program and the presenters, coping strategies (active-cognitive, active-behavioral, avoidant), proclivity to sexually harass, self-monitoring, awareness (Time 1 and 2), and frequency of labeling (Time-1) were included as independent variables. None of the variables were significant predictors of the reduction of labeling behaviors as sexual harassment over time. This was entirely unexpected. It is possible that factors beyond the scope of this study would predict people's labeling; however, the present findings suggest that neither people's behavior nor their attitudes/beliefs predict their judgments of behaviors of sexual harassment.

Exploratory Analysis: Predictors of No Change

People's attitudes toward sexual harassment were found to be stable over time. If educators do decide to explore methods of effectively changing tolerant attitudes, the first step should be to find out what factors are related to those attitudes. An exploratory multiple regression analysis was conducted with the following variables as possible predictors of participants' attitudes toward sexual harassment (ATSH) (Time-2): participant sex, sexual harassment education programs (prior to Time-1), frequencies of labeling behaviors as sexual harassment (Time 1 and 2), frequency of victimization and perpetration, satisfaction with program and the presenters, coping strategies (active-cognitive, active-behavioral, avoidant), proclivity to sexually harass, self-monitoring, awareness of university sexual harassment policies and procedures (Time 1 and 2), and attitudes toward sexual harassment (Time-1).

The R value was for this regression was significant ($F(16,23) = 10.27$, $p < .001$). Education ($sr^2 = .06$, $p = .003$), ATSH (Time-1) ($sr^2 = .07$, $p = .001$), avoidant coping strategies ($sr^2 = .04$, $p = .015$), awareness (Time-2) ($sr^2 = .03$, $p = .019$), and proclivities to sexually harass ($sr^2 = .06$, $p = .003$), were significant predictors of participants'

attitudes at Time-2 (see Table 31). Together, all of the variables explained 79% of the variance in attitudes toward sexual harassment.

Table 31

Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment (ATSH) (Time-2) from Participant Sex, Education, Frequencies of Victimization and Perpetration, Frequencies of Labeling Behaviors as Sexual Harassment (Times 1 and 2), Awareness of University Policies and Procedures (Times 1 and 2), Satisfaction with Education Program and Presenters, Coping Strategies (Active-Cognitive, Active-Behavioral, Avoidant), Proclivity to Sexually Harass (PSH), Self-Montoring Scale (SMS), and ATSH (Time-1) (Study 3)

	ATSH2 (DV)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Sex	-.27														
2	Educ	-.08	.25													
3	Victim	-.31	.52	.05												
4	Perp	-.02	.20	-.28	.52											
5	Label1	-.43	-.06	.09	.10	-.01										
6	Label2	-.38	-.19	.03	.06	-.02	.56									
7	ATSH1	.69	-.24	-.44	-.21	.07	-.53	-.36								
8	Prog	-.18	.07	-.03	-.02	-.14	.26	.17	-.09							
9	Present	-.12	.16	.32	.09	-.05	.28	.08	-.40	.37						
10	ACC	-.11	.48	.32	.23	.17	-.06	-.15	-.24	-.06	.08					
11	ABC	-.09	.57	.39	.33	.30	-.09	-.06	-.13	-.04	.17	.78				
12	AS	-.01	.26	.19	-.02	-.11	-.40	-.44	.08	.05	.12	.40	.23			
13	PSH	.79	-.19	-.21	-.22	.03	-.30	-.33	.62	-.01	-.01	-.02	.04	.08		
14	SMS	.10	.02	-.17	.25	.46	-.31	-.25	.25	-.02	-.29	.01	.02	.10	.14	
15	Aware1	-.35	-.06	-.04	-.10	-.04	.00	.04	-.18	.18	.24	-.16	-.10	.08	-.35	-.02
16	Aware2	-.32	-.21	.03	-.27	-.10	.17	.33	-.03	.05	-.15	-.25	-.05	-.30	-.25	-.01	.21

Variable	Mean (SD)	B	ß	sr^2	t	
1	.65 (.48)	-.41	-.01	.00	-.06	
2	.53 (.51)	.39	.34	.06	3.31**	
3	4.18 (4.14)	-.03	-.22	.02	-1.98	
4	.98 (1.51)	.05	.14	.01	1.23	
5	23.45 (3.92)	-.02	-.13	.01	-1.15	
6	20.08 (8.06)	-.00	-.03	.00	-.25	R^2 = .88
7	2.14 (.56)	.51	.51	.07	3.68**	Adjusted R^2 = .79
8	3.51 (.39)	-.10	-.07	.00	-.78	R = .94***
9	4.36 (.54)	.10	.09	.00	.86	
10	19.55 (7.69)	.01	.13	.00	.85	
11	19.30 (9.48)	-.01	-.24	.01	-1.39	
12	4.15 (2.67)	-.06	-.27	.04	-2.64*	
13	2.00 (.64)	.35	.40	.06	3.32**	
14	7.80 (3.21)	-.01	-.03	.00	-.29	
15	2.06 (.80)	-.04	-.06	.00	-.65	
16	2.62 (.64)	-.21	-.25	.03	-2.52*	
Constant		1.68			2.13*	

Note: * $p < .05$ $N = 40$
** $p < .004$
*** $p < .001$

People who had previously attended sexual harassment education programs were less tolerant of sexual harassment (r (40) = -.08). While the current program may not have been effective at reducing people's tolerance for sexual harassment, possibly other programs were. It is not possible to assess the nature of these programs; however, as previously discussed, the current program fell short of the experimenter's expectations. Future studies should experimentally determine which program formats are most effective.

As suggested by the lack of change in attitudes from Time-1 to 2, tolerance before the program was strongly related to tolerance after (r (40) = .69). Participants' attitudes were consistent over time.

Participants who utilized avoidant coping strategies tended to be less tolerant of sexual harassment (r (40) = -.01). While this relationship is not strong and not intuitive, it may suggest that people avoid dealing with difficult issues in their lives because they are so acutely sensitive to the resulting emotional upheaval. Therefore, avoidant people would be highly sensitive to an important issue such as sexual harassment and are consequently less tolerant of it.

Being more aware of sexual harassment policies and procedures after the program (Time-2) was related to less tolerance of sexual harassment (r (40) = -.32). As suggested previously, those who are more tolerant of sexual harassment may be less concerned with its policies and procedures and/or may not view themselves as potential victims. In addition, because education also predicts attitudes, it is possible that people's tolerance can be affected by programs which make them more aware of how to deal with possible issues of sexual harassment.

Finally, higher proclivities to sexually harass were related to higher tolerances of sexual harassment. It is possible that individuals who are likely to engage in unwanted sexual behavior are not likely to perceive their behavior as a problem. They may view their socio-sexual behavior as natural, acceptable, or a personal right. However, recall that participants' actual perpetration behavior did not predict their attitudes. This lack of effect

may be due to an apprehension on the parts of the participants to admit to perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior, but it still begs the question of whether attitudes and behavior are consistent. So while we may be able to conclude that certain attitudes are related (i.e. proclivity, tolerance), we cannot conclude that there is a relationship to people's behavior.

Replication of Studies 1 and 2

The same scales utilized in Studies 1 and 2 were also a part of Study 3. Since Studies 1 and 2 were not entirely consistent with one another in their findings, and the sample of Study 3 is similar to that in Study 1 (i.e. UNH graduate assistants), the original hypotheses were tested in the Study 3 sample. However, since most participants in Study 3 did not include a written definition of sexual harassment, the hypotheses involving an assessment of knowledge of the legal definition of sexual harassment could not be tested.

Labeling sexually harassing behaviors. In order to test the original hypothesis that women would label more behaviors as sexual harassment than men, a standard multiple regression analysis was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable to predict labeling frequency at Time-2.[12] There was no effect for sex. Therefore, males and females did not significantly differ in their frequencies of labeling behaviors as "sexual harassment."

It was also predicted that sex differences in the labeling of behaviors as "sexual harassment" would be found for hostile environment forms of sexual harassment, not necessarily for quid pro quo forms. Multiple regressions were performed to predict labeling of quid pro quo items and hostile work environment items at Time-2 with participant sex as the independent variable. Sex was still not a predictor of labeling. In the current sample, men and women did not label either quid pro quo or hostile work environment behaviors differently.

Because the repeated measures analysis showed that labeling behaviors decreased over time, it is possible that sex was a significant predictor of labeling frequency before the education program (Time-1). Therefore, multiple regressions were run with Time-1 (rather

than Time-2) frequencies of labeling quid pro quo and hostile work environment items. Sex was not a predictor before the sexual harassment education program either.

These findings are consistent with Study 2, but not Study 1 in which there were sex differences in cases of hostile work environment labeling (i.e. women labeling more as sexual harassment than men). One possible explanation lies in the awareness of the participants of the nature of the study. Many of the participants in Study 2 had been aware that the survey focused on issues of sexual harassment (due to the endorsement on the SPSP listserv survey), and Study 3 participants were informed from the very beginning as to the nature of the issues being explored. People who elected to participate in these studies may have had a special interest in the topic. Participants in Study 1 eventually learned that the survey had at least partially to do with sexual harassment. However, by that point, they had already finished most of the survey; participants in Study 1 may have continued in order to qualify for the lottery. Further speculation is difficult, because the samples in Studies 1 and 3 are more similar to each other (i.e. UNH graduate assistants) than the sample of Study 2 (i.e. graduate students from schools all over the country). In addition, the earlier exploratory analysis of labeling frequency found that none of the variables measured in this study were significant predictors. More research needs to be done to determine what factors might influence people's judgments of behaviors, because sexual harassment civil suites rely on the judgments of jurors.

Victimization experiences: Sex differences It was predicted that women would report more experiences with unwanted sexual behavior than men. In addition, it was expected that males would most likely be victimized by those with a higher (professors) or equal (graduate students) power status than those with a lower power status (undergraduate students); females, on the other hand, would be likely to be victimized by people at any power level. Finally, single participants were predicted to report more experiences with victimization than married participants.

In order to test these hypotheses, two analyses were conducted. First, a standard multiple regression was run with participant sex and marital status (single, married) as the independent variables to predict frequency of victimization. Table 32 shows the variable correlations, the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (ß), the squared semipartial correlations (sr^2) and R, R^2, and adjusted R^2. The R value for the regression was statistically significant ($F(2,49) = 10.62$, $p < .001$). Only sex was significant a predictor of victimization ($sr^2 = .29$, $p < .001$).

Table 32
Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Frequency of Victimization from Participant Sex and Marital Status (Study 3)

Variables	Victim (DV)	Sex	Marital	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.55			4.72	.54	.29	4.53*
Marital	.10	.08		.65	.06	.00	.49
Constant				.49			.37
M	4.10	.64	.83			R^2 = .30	
SD	4.23	.49	.38			Adjusted R^2 = .27	
						R = .55*	

Note: * $p < .001$ N = 52

Women were more likely to be victimized than men in this sample, which is consistent with earlier research on harassment victimization prevalency (e.g., McKinney, Olson, & Satterfield, 1988; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982; also Fitzgerald, 1996).

In Studies 1 and 2, marital status, not sex, was a predictor of victimization experiences. Participants' comfort with reporting experiences in Study 3 may have been different, because they had included the last six digits of their social security numbers on the surveys. This information was used to match up the three surveys, not to identify participants. However, participants may have felt that their anonymity was compromised. Perhaps males felt less at ease to confess to their victimization, as it might threaten their sense of masculinity; this may account for the sex difference in Study 3.

Second, a MANOVA was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable and frequency of perpetration by professors, graduates, and undergraduates as the

three dependent variables. There were no effects for either sex or power status of perpetrator. Since the possible range of scores for victimization experiences is zero to 26, and the average reported experiences was less than one, the lack of effect for sex or perpetrator status may have been due to the low overall frequency of reported behavior. For this analysis, there were only eight males and 30 females. Since women are more often victimized, it would be expected that the larger number of females in this analysis would actually help to create a significant difference. The lack of a finding suggests that men and women are experiencing the same frequencies of unwanted sexual behavior.

Victimization experiences: Context. It was also hypothesized that the sex-ratio of the participants' departments would predict victimization (i.e. people who are in a department dominated by the opposite sex are more likely to be victimized than people who are among the dominant group or are in a department with an equal distribution of males and females). In addition, it is possible that while sex was not a significant predictor of overall victimization, the pattern of predictors may be different for men and women. Therefore, in order to address these two issues, standard multiple regressions were conducted separately for women and men using sex-ratio of department (mostly male, mostly female, equal) and participant marital status as the predictors for victimization.

Neither sex-ratio nor marital status were significant predictors of victimization frequencies for females and for males. Therefore, victimization was equally likely for single and married participants, and for participants in departments of different ratios of men and women. This is contrary to both previous studies. In Study 1, single males and females were more often victimized than married males and females. In Study 2, females were most often victimized in a male-dominated or female-dominated department and/or if they were single; for males, there were no predictors. These differences between the three studies are difficult to explain. However, they are most likely due to the different methodologies (e.g., mail vs. internet, knowledge of nature of study) employed.

Consequences and responses to victimization. It was predicted that (a) female victims would be more likely to suffer from psychological and behavioral consequences than male victims, (b) female victims would be more likely to respond indirectly to the perpetrators' actions, while male victims would respond directly, and (c) people who rely on active coping strategies would be likely to respond directly, and avoidant strategies would be related to indirect responses. Standard multiple regression analyses were conducted to test each of these hypotheses. Participant sex, active-cognitive, active-behavioral, and avoidant coping served as predictors of measures of participants' direct and (e.g., file a complaint) indirect responses (e.g., avoid the perpetrator), psychological (e.g., fear) and behavioral consequences (e.g., changes in eating habits).

There was only one dependent variable with significant predictors. Both active-cognitive ($sr^2 = .10$, $p < .05$) and active-behavioral ($sr^2 = .11$, $p < .05$) coping strategies were significant predictors of participants' use of direct responses to perpetrators' behavior (see Table 33). Participants who utilized more active strategies also responded to perpetrators more directly (cognitive: $r = .07$, behavioral: $r = .27$). This effect for the overall sample was not found in either Studies 1 or 2. The only other overall effect was in Study 2; participants' avoidant strategies were related to more behavioral symptoms.

Table 33
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Participants' Direct Responses to Unwanted Sexual Behavior by Participant Sex, Active-Cognitive (ACC), Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Coping Strategies (Study 3)

Variables	Direct (DV)	Sex	ACC	ABC	AS	B	ß	sr^2	t
Sex	.27					10.35	.31	.06	1.55
ACC	.07	.62				-1.03	-.60	.10	-2.06*
ABC	.27	.55	.80			.81	.56	.11	2.14*
AS	.06	.23	.41	.26		.38	.09	.01	.50
Constant						3.68			.61
M	.79	20.32	20.95	4.53				$R^2 = .20$	
SD	.41	7.97	9.47	3.13				Adjusted $R^2 = .10$	
								$R = .44$	

Note: * $p < .05$ $N = 38$

Since the patterns of predictions for men and women might have been different, a set of regressions using active-cognitive coping, active-behavioral coping, and avoidant coping served as predictors of measures of participants' direct responses, indirect responses, psychological consequences, and behavioral consequences were conducted separately for women and men. For females, active-cognitive and active-behavioral coping strategies were significant predictors of their direct response to the perpetrator (sr^2 = .19 and .12, respectively) (see Table 34).

Table 34
Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Female Participants' Direct Responses to Unwanted Sexual Behavior by Participant Active-Cognitive (ACC), Active-Behavioral (ABC), and Avoidant (AS) Coping Strategies (Study 3)

Variables	Direct (DV)	ACC	ABC	AS	B	ß	sr^2	t
ACC	-.30				-1.58	-.52	.19	-2.52**
ABC	.15	.50			.93	.41	.12	2.01*
AS	-.01	.21	.04		.41	.09	.01	.50
Constant					23.28			1.79
M	11.33	22.83	23.60	4.90			R^2 = .21	
SD	14.56	4.80	6.33	3.14			Adjusted R^2 = .12	
							R = .46	

Note: * p = .05 N = 30
** p < .05

Females who engaged in direct responses to unwanted sexual behavior utilized more active-cognitive and active-behavioral coping strategies. However, there were no predictors of the dependent variables for males.

The findings for the analyses of men and women are also inconsistent across the three studies. In Study 1, males who engaged in direct behavior relied on more active-cognitive and less active-behavioral strategies; however, there were no effects for females. In Study 2, females who utilized avoidant strategies suffered from more behavioral symptoms; males who utilized active-behavioral strategies were less likely to respond indirectly to perpetrators.

The drastic differences between the three studies in examining the consequences of and responses to unwanted sexual behavior could be due to either the differences in

methodologies, the different populations, and/or the limited scope of the measures of consequences and responses (i.e. each having five or less items).

Exploratory analysis: Victimization, Coping, and Attitudes. The coping strategies scales assessed participants' general coping styles, not necessarily ones related to experiences with unwanted sexual behavior. In order to examine whether these factors could predict victimization, an exploratory regression analysis was conducted with participants scores on the ATSH (Time-2), PSH, and three coping sub-scales as the predictors of frequency of victimization. As in Study 2, none of the variables were significant predictors of victimization in Study 3. In Study 1, avoidant strategies were related to higher frequencies of victimization.

Once again, participants in Study 3 and most participants in Study 2 had prior knowledge that the focus of the surveys was on sexual harassment. While the coping strategies scales were supposed to assess people's reactions to any major event in the last year, it is possible that knowing the focus of the study was on sexual harassment prompted participants in Studies 2 and 3 to reflect on an experience with unwanted sexual behavior when completing the coping scales.

Perpetration experiences. Finally, it was originally predicted that participants who reported perpetrating more unwanted sexual behavior would most likely be male, married, have higher proclivities to harass, and be more tolerant of sexual harassment. In addition, females would most likely harass people of a lower power status (undergraduate students), while males would harass people of an equal (graduate students) or lower power status. In order to test these hypotheses, two analyses were conducted. First, a standard multiple regression analysis was run including participants' sex, marital status (single, married), attitudes toward sexual harassment (ATSH), and proclivities to harass (PSH) as predictors of participants' reported frequencies of perpetrating unwanted sexual behavior.

None of the independent variables were significant predictors of perpetration frequency. This is consistent with Study 2. However, sex was a predictor in Study 1 (i.e.

males more often perpetrators than females). As mentioned previously, participants may have felt that either (a) using social security numbers (Study 3) or (b) sending out their responses over the internet (Study 2) potentially violated their anonymity. Therefore, the participants in these studies may not have been as forthcoming as those in Study 1, particularly if they felt that they could be held accountable for their actions.

Second, a MANOVA was conducted with participant sex as the independent variable and frequency of victimization of professors, graduate students, and undergraduate students as the three dependent variables. There was a significant main effect for sex ($F(1,36) = 2.74$, $p < .001$). Females perpetrated less acts of unwanted sexual behavior ($M = .07$, $SD = .25$, $n = 30$) than males ($M = .46$, $SD = .60$, $n = 8$).

There was also a significant interaction of sex with status of victim (within-subjects factor) ($F(2,35) = 8.46$, $p = .001$, Pillais = .33). Three paired samples t-tests were conducted between the three dependent variables for females and males separately. In order to correct for Type I error, a Bonferroni correction was used; a p-value of .008 was used as the significance cut-off. None of the comparisons were significant.

Finally, there was a within-subjects effect of status of victim ($F(2,35) = 16.58$, $p < .001$, Pillais = .49). Three paired samples t-tests were conducted between the three dependent variables. A Bonferroni correction of .02 served as the significance cut-off. Graduates ($M = .32$, $SD = .70$) were victimized more than professors ($M = 00$, $SD = 00$) ($t(37) = -2.77$, $p = .009$). The other comparisons were not significant.

Graduate students were most often victimized, and male participants were more often the perpetrators. Sexual harassment is an abuse of power, men have more power in society than women (e.g., MacKinnon, 1979), and victims can be of equal power status to the perpetrator (e.g., Paludi & Barickman, 1991). Contra-power sexual harassment (lower power perpetrator, higher power victim) does exist, but it is rare (e.g., Bedard & Hartung, 1996). It should be noted, however, that the difference in size of the male and female

samples may have had an effect on the findings; when cell sizes are under 10, there is the problem of sufficient power to detect valid differences between cells.

Since previous analyses demonstrated differences in the patterns of the predictors for men and women, separate regression analyses were conducted for men and women. Marital status, PSH, and ATSH scores were included to predict frequency of perpetration. None of these variables predicted perpetration of unwanted sexual behavior for either men or women in Study 3. In both Studies 1 and 2, females' attitudes toward sexual harassment was related to their perpetration (i.e. higher tolerance, higher perpetration). It is unclear whether methodologies (e.g., multiple measures in Study 3) could explain the differences.

V. GENERAL DISCUSSION

Labeling and Defining Sexual Harassment

Men and women do not appear to label or define sexual harassment differently. This is inconsistent with most of the research to date (e.g., Baird et al., 1995; Fitzgerald & Ormerod, 1990; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Popovich, Gehlauf, Jolton, Somers, & Godinho, 1992; Powell, 1986). Baker, Terpstra, and Cutler (1990) argued that sex differences are due to ambiguous survey methods, rather than actual differences between men and women. Therefore, it might be that the current surveys' questions were clear to all participants. However, it is also likely that the media exposure of sexual harassment has informed people about what behaviors typically constitute sexual harassment and how the law defines it. Jaschik-Herman and Fisk (1995) found that women were more likely to label behaviors as sexual harassment after the Anita Hill-Clarence Thomas hearings than before; they concluded that the publicity from the hearings potentially increased women's sensitivity to the issue of sexual harassment. While Jaschick-Herman and Fisk's (1995) study did not examine males, the current research findings suggest that media attention to sexual harassment could also increase people's sensitivity and/or awareness concerning sexual harassment.

The lack of differences between men and women has important implications for the legal system. The "reasonable woman" standard may not be necessary in court cases if men can view sexual harassment similarly to women. Also, the jury selection may become more or less problematic. Sex does not necessarily indicate sympathy towards the victim or perpetrator. The current studies suggest that people's attitudes toward sexual harassment and/or their proclivities to harass are important factors to consider. However, sex is a far more salient feature than attitudes and proclivities, making lawyers' jobs more difficult in selecting jury members.

Victimization

With the exception of Study 3, men and women reported equal numbers of unwanted sexual behavior victimization in the current research. The harassment of men is not a new finding (e.g., Berdahl, Magley, & Waldo, 1996), and it contradicts the natural/biological causal model of sexual harassment, which states that "sexual harassment" is really just the natural, aggressive sexual nature of men engaged in mating behavior (Tangri & Hayes, 1997). Models of sexual harassment which address power differentials (i.e. organizational model), societal norms (i.e. socio-cultural model, Gutek & Morasch's 1982 sex-role spillover model), and/or the interactions of person and situational factors (i.e. Pryor's 1987 person-situation model, Grundman & O'Donohue's 1997 four-factor model) are more likely possible explanations for sexual harassment (see Grundman & O'Donohue, 1997 for a summary of the models). Understanding that men can be victims prevents people from explaining away harassment with statements such as "boys will be boys." Sexual harassment is not "natural" and thus can be eliminated. Men and women alike must not only be educated about what legally constitutes sexual harassment, but also about the factors which maintain its existence (e.g., societal norms, sex roles).

Graduate students' marital status may indicate their risk of being sexually harassed. The current studies were not able to clearly explain why single participants were more often victimized. However, it is possible that socialization habits are a factor. Married students are more likely to spend less time socializing with others, because they have a spouse at home. When they do socialize, the spouse is possible present, thus deterring potential perpetrators from taking action. Therefore, marital status as a predictor of victimization may be more of an issue of exposure to a sexualized atmosphere.

Victims of unwanted sexual behavior sustain numerous behavioral and psychological consequences (e.g., Charney & Russell, 1994; Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997) and rarely take direct action against the perpetrators (e.g., Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997; Benson & Thomson, 1982). Like victims of rape, victims of harassing behavior have been

violated and can suffer from numerous symptoms (e.g., depression, loss of appetite) and engage in protective behavior (e.g., avoiding the perpetrator). The current studies were not consistent in their findings for either the consequences of or responses to unwanted sexual behavior. However, that does not mean that unwanted sexual behavior is not detrimental to the victims.

Sexual harassment is often trivialized by those who view the behavior as innocuous and harmless. However, sexual harassment is a rampant social problem with terrible consequences. Graduate students are particularly vulnerable, because they must rely so heavily on faculty members' recommendations for fellowships and job (Truax, 1996). Institutions of higher education must (a) create policies which better protect graduate students from sexual harassment, and (b) establish an environment in which graduate students feel comfortable to come forward to report harassment. Individual departments must also make its graduate students feel that their charges will be taken seriously and that they will not be blamed or face retaliation.

Perpetration

Perpetrators of unwanted sexual behavior can be male or female, married or single, and/or possessing an equal or higher power status to their victims. What was interesting was that attitudes were predictors of behavior for females (Studies 1 and 2), but not for males. Women who are tolerant of sexual harassment were likely to perpetrate unwanted sexual behavior. Malamuth (1981) found that men's attitudes towards women and rape were highly correlated with their likelihood to commit rape. Both Pryor (1987) and Bartling and Eisenman (1993) found that certain attitudes (e.g., rape myth acceptance, acceptance of interpersonal violence) were highly correlated with people's likelihood to commit sexual harassment. While it is still unclear as to whether attitudes accurately predict behavior, and unknown why attitudes may predict behavior differentially based upon someone's sex, attitudes do appear to provide us with some information as to people's tendencies and should be further explored.

Perpetrators can come from any number of backgrounds, and using this preliminary data to "pick out" sexual harassment perpetrators is dangerous. Such tactics rely on social categorization (i.e. stereotyping) and these generalizations are not always accurate; selecting perpetrators based upon scale scores could result in a witch hunt. What the current information on perpetrators can provide is a starting point to determining how perpetrators are "created." What about their socialization makes them prone to commit sexual harassment? Under what circumstances will they perpetrate? How do they select their targets? While it is difficult to obtain information from actual perpetrators, they need to become the focus of more research. Understanding the victim does not prevent harassment, but understanding the perpetrator might.

Sexual Harassment Education

Sexual harassment education programs are expected to be effective in reducing the prevalence of sexual harassment. It is believed that informing people about sexual harassment and changing their attitudes toward it will help to reduce future incidents (e.g., Beauvais, 1986, Fitzgerald, 1993). Thus, the first goal is to ensure that people are learning about sexual harassment and their attitudes are changing. Lonsway's (1996) review of rape prevention programs demonstrated that we cannot assume that sexual harassment programs are always beneficial. Study 3 represented a first step towards achieving this goal. Sexual harassment education programs can inform people about the issue. Participants in Study 3 became more aware of the university's policies and procedures regarding sexual harassment. However, the program was not successful in changing attitudes toward sexual harassment. The program may have been more successful with a less educated group which has not been previously exposed to issues of academic sexual harassment (e.g., undergraduates, high school students).

General Implications

Taken together, the current studies represented several new contributions to the sexual harassment literature. First, while a few researchers have examined the

victimization of graduate students (McKinney, Olson, & Satterfield, 1988; Schneider, 1987), no one has examined both a local population (Studies 1 and 3) and a national population (Study 2). Having a national sample of graduate students validates a generalization of the findings to the population of graduate students in the United States.

Second, no one had ever examined graduate students as perpetrators of sexual harassment. The research on perpetrators to this point has involved victims' accounts (e.g., Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982) and people's proclivity to sexually harass (e.g., Bartling & Eisenman, 1993). The current sample assessed actual acts of perpetration by graduate students. Understanding the "profile" of a perpetrator of sexual harassment can lead to a discovery of why they perpetrate and what can be done to stop them. More importantly, none of the victimization or perpetration literature has ever focused on the same population as victims and perpetrators. It has been assumed that those groups were different. However, the current studies suggest that perpetration and victimization are positively related to one another. Sexual harassment may be a societal symptom of the effects of power on individuals. For example, a boss sanctions an employee, who then goes home and yells at his/her secretary. People who are victimized may feel a loss of power and attempt to reclaim it by harassing others.

Third, the lack of an empirical assessment of sexual harassment education programs is a serious oversight by researchers and educators alike (Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997). Study 3 was an attempt to rectify that oversight in the research literature. The ultimate goal of sexual harassment education programs is to reduce the incidence of sexual harassment by changing people's perceptions (i.e. increased knowledge and awareness, less tolerant attitudes). However, we need to know if the message is indeed being received by people before we can conclude that these programs will have positive, lasting impacts on people. The current study suggests that programs can have an affect on people. However, the quality and content of those educational programs needs to be empirically assessed.

Problems and Future Directions

Participant Background

The current samples consisted of highly educated individuals. This creates possible biases in the nature of the results. Participants were most likely more aware of the issue of sexual harassment than other groups (e.g., undergraduates). As a result, the findings cannot necessarily be generalized to other populations. However, since most of the research to date in academia involves the use of undergraduates as a sample population, the current research project does serve to rectify the problem of generalizing undergraduates' experiences to graduate students. Researchers must always take into account the backgrounds of their participants (e.g., sex, nationality, socio-economic status) and not assume their findings can apply to all.

Participant Honesty

As with any self-report measure, the question of participant honesty is raised. However, with sexual harassment, the problem is potentially greater. For victims, sexual harassment is an intrusive violation of their lives. Sharing such experiences may be difficult, even when confidentiality is assured. For perpetrators, admitting to possibly illegal behavior is an obvious concern. It is hoped that the intermixing of victim and perpetrator questions will reduce any feelings of defensiveness on the part of participants. However, it is likely that perpetrators will not admit to many of their exploits. Researchers should continue to examine actual perpetrators, focusing on what drives them to commit sexual harassment.

With regards to the specific samples, issues of confidentiality in both Studies 2 (internet) and 3 (social security numbers) may have threatened participants' full disclosure of information. In addition, participants in both of these studies were aware of the nature of the study. This may have not only created a selection bias in the samples, but also biased the nature of their responses. For example, knowing the study was on sexual harassment may have influenced people's disclosure of their victimization and perpetration

experiences (i.e. What happened was not sexual harassment, so I won't mark it.). Future studies should attempt to more closely guard participants' feelings of confidentiality. Internet studies of sexual harassment may not be possible until measures can be taken to ensure that the participants' responses cannot be traced back to them.

Labeling and Defining Sexual Harassment

Asking someone to define "sexual harassment" or label behaviors as constituting harassment is really an academic question. Until people are actually put in a situation, they cannot accurately state how they would judge that situation, and the legal definition of sexual harassment may not reflect their personal beliefs. This does not mean that researchers can only examine sexual harassment within the context of actual reported cases. Knowing how people would judge behaviors is important, because juries are essentially asked to judge situations they themselves were not involved in. Researchers must decide whether they want to examine how people judge actual experiences or how they perceive hypothetical situations. Their methodologies should reflect that goal. I asked participants to label behaviors as harassment without realizing that also asking about their own experiences could confound their labeling judgments.

Focus of Research on Experiences.

Examining the experiences of anyone is problematic. Sexual harassment is complex, and individual experiences often illustrate that complexity. For example, harassment is rarely clear cut; often sexual harassment is established by the cumulative effect of various, repeated hostile behaviors (e.g., sexist jokes, pornography in the work place). Victims' reactions are also complex, ranging from mild psychological discomfort to post traumatic stress syndrome (e.g., Charney & Russell, 1994). It is highly difficulty to develop a survey which can assess all of the nuances of people's experiences with sexual harassment. Individual researchers must decide whether to take a broader (limiting the amount of details that can be obtained) or narrower (limiting the scope of sexual harassment within a population) focus. The current studies took a broader focus on the prevalence of

sexual harassment in a graduate student population. Future work should measure more details about the victims and perpetrators of unwanted sexual behavior and focus upon the perceptions of individual experiences. For example, Smirles, Davey, and Czarnecki (1997) compared women's labeling of their own experiences with sexual harassment in order to determine why two people with the same experience could interpret it so differently; the most striking finding was that women who did not label their experiences as sexual harassment had rationalized the situation in some manner (e.g., he didn't mean it, he was my boyfriend). Research on individual experiences can provide valuable information on how to best assist and educate people about sexual harassment.

Outcome Assessment

The sexual harassment program had several problems: limited presentation and survey time, large number of participants, and a crowded seating arrangement. Ideally, programs should be conducted in small groups over a longer period of time in order to foster trust between the members in discussing an often controversial and sensitive topic.

Consumer satisfaction questions are not sufficient to assess the effectiveness of a program. The outcome assessment of sexual harassment education programs requires a more extensive survey of people's beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge. In addition, while a two month follow-up will begin to tap into longitudinal changes in perceptions of sexual harassment, more immediate, frequent, and long-term assessments should be made.

In an examination of each of the theoretical models of sexual harassment, Grundman, O'Donohue, and Peterson (1997) outline the implications that each model's approach has for prevention programs. The natural/biological model suggests that educating men as to how their sexual advances might be negatively interpreted by women would reduce sexual harassing behavior; possible techniques include increasing empathy with the victim and developing social skills. Once aware that their sexual behavior is unwanted, the natural/biological model predicts that men will cease their "courtship" behavior (see Tangri & Hayes, 1997).

The situational perspective of the organizational model provides a variety of possible approaches to sexual harassment prevention: balance the numbers of males and females throughout the organizational hierarchy, clearly define job descriptions, develop clear grievance procedures, publicize policies and procedures, open communication between power levels, create an open and professional working environment, and an practice intolerance of sexually harassing behavior (Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997; also see Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982).

The socio-cultural model provides no simple answers towards sexual harassment prevention. Sexual harassment is a pervasive, societal disease (MacKinnon, 1979). Typical educational programs presented in the workplace would be viewed as ineffective. Defining rules and regulations does not address the societal norms which people have experienced since birth. A couple of hours of awareness education cannot undue a lifetime of learning. Prevention of sexual harassment would require drastic changes in societal structure and practices (e.g., equal exposure of boys and girls to opportunities for developing skills) (Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997). Such attempts have long-term implications, but do not necessarily assist in the short-term prevention of sexual harassment.

Based upon the sex-role spillover model, sexual harassment could be prevented by integrating the workplace, so that men and women are more equally distributed at all levels of power. However, it is not clear whether the solution is that clear-cut. Sex-roles are based upon stereotypic beliefs about men and women that are deeply embedded within our culture (Gutek & Morasch, 1982). Therefore, the long-term solutions to eliminate sex-role spillover are not so different from those of the socio-cultural model.

A person-situation approach to understanding sexual harassment presents several avenues for prevention. Again, there is a socio-cultural component to preventing sexual harassment. The proclivity to sexually harass is related to several attitudinal variables which have developed over years of socialization (Pryor, 1987). Efforts focusing on

personal factors would be largely long-term oriented, however, education about healthy social and sexual relationships are possible short-term approaches. Organizational variables are feasible and appropriate targets for addressing the situational component of sexual harassment. Creating a climate that is intolerant of sexual harassment can inhibit those with the proclivity to harass; clear policies and grievance procedures and widespread publicity and endorsement of them will inform potential perpetrators that their behavior has severe consequences (Grundman, O'Donohue, & Peterson, 1997).

Because all four preconditions of Grundman, O'Donohue, and Peterson's (1997) four-factor model are required for sexual harassment to occur, prevention efforts targeting any one of them would presumably be effective. Changing people's motivations is unclear and problematic due mostly to a lack of research. Victim empathy training, clarification of the moral wrongness of sexual harassment, and changing myths about sexual harassment might increase internal inhibitors. Establishing a professional working environment and the unacceptability of sexist behavior through modeling and educational programs may reinforce external inhibitors. While anyone could be a victim of sexual harassment, women are the most likely target; therefore, they should take an active role in preventing harassment by becoming more aware of the issue, resisting sex-role spillover, and developing assertiveness skills (however, women are not to blame for their harassment if they do not take such actions).

Each of these models provides a structure for sexual harassment education. Future research should manipulate the format of sexual harassment programs to determine which programs are the most effective at increasing people's knowledge about sexual harassment and changing their attitudes toward it. These manipulations can be informed by the causal models of sexual harassment. Once effective programs are developed, researchers need to initiate the most successful program at some institution and then assess the long-term (e.g., two years) changes in climate at the institution (e.g., frequencies of victimization, attitudes).

Scale Construction

Most of the scales utilized in the current studies were previously found to be valid and reliable instruments (sexual experiences questionnaire, attitudes toward sexual harassment, proclivity to sexually harass, self-monitoring, coping strategies). However, some were limited in the scope of information they assessed. The SEQ-M assessed whether a particular experience occurred or not. The frequencies of individual experiences were not assessed. Such missing information may have had serious effects on the results of the current studies. The coping strategies scale assessed people's responses to a particular incident in the last year. However, coping is typically viewed as a process, whereby people's reactions are situation dependent (see Lazarus, 1993). The participants' reported strategies may not translate to their experiences with unwanted sexual attention. Additionally, the nature of the experience may have varied greatly between participants (e.g., death in the family, failing grade).

Scales created by the experimenter were also problematic. The measures of participants' psychological and physical symptoms and their direct and indirect responses to unwanted sexual behavior were limited in the behaviors they assessed. Just as the behavioral manifestation of sexual harassment can take numerous forms and severity, so could the consequences of and responses to it. Future studies should include more comprehensive measures of the effects of victimization.

Conclusion

Sexual harassment affects graduate students across the country. Graduate students' dual power roles as students and teachers place them in the corresponding potential roles of victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment. Their unique power position makes them an ideal focus for sexual harassment research. However, the uniqueness of individual experiences must be appreciated if researchers are to understand the nature of the phenomenon and develop effective methods of eliminating it.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (STUDY1)

Dear Fellow Graduate Student,

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the psychology department here at UNH, and I am writing to ask for your help with my doctoral research. I am conducting an extensive study of interpersonal behavior in the academic workplace, both here and across the country. The purpose of this project is to assess people's experiences and attitudes toward such interactions. The only requirements to participate in this study are that you are a graduate student on assistantship.

I believe that you will find the survey interesting and informative. Some of the questions in the survey are of a personal nature. However, your responses are completely anonymous and confidential. Completing this survey should not take more than half an hour. Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the experiment at any time without penalty. Completing the survey indicates your consent to participate. The enclosed, addressed envelope is for you to return the survey to me.

I realize that your time is valuable. Therefore, I wanted to make it worth your while to complete the survey. If you decide to participate, you will be entered into a lottery for $100 by sending in the postcard that is included in this packet with your name and phone number once you have completed the survey. It is important to note that this postcard will not be able to identify which survey is your own. The postcard will be mailed to a separate address from your survey. To qualify for the lottery, I ask that you return your survey and postcard by December 15, 1997. The drawing will be on December 17th, and the winner will be notified by phone.

I want to thank you in advance for taking part in this project. Please, feel free to contact me, Kimberly Smirles (749-9687 or ksmirles@hopper.unh.edu), with any questions or concerns you may have. You will be sent a full description of the goals and purposes of this project once data collection is completed. Enjoy the rest of your semester!

Sincerely,
Kimberly A. Smirles

APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHICS (STUDY 1)

Please, read each question carefully and take your time completing this survey.
• For each item below, circle or fill in the appropriate response.
1. SEX: (1) Female (2) Male
2. AGE: years old
3. RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION:
(1) Catholic (2) Protestant (3) Jewish (4) Christian (5) Buddhist (6) Muslim
(7) Agnostic (8) Atheist (9) Other (please specify):
4. CURRENT MARITAL STATUS:
(1) Single (2) Married (3) Separated (4) Divorced (5) Other (please specify):
If you are single, which of the following best describes your current situation:
(a) not dating (b) dating different people (c) dating one person exclusively (d) engaged
(e) other (please specify):
5. NATIONALITY:
(1) American (2) Other (please specify):
6. DEGREE BEING SOUGHT:
(1) Masters (2) Doctorate (3) Other (please specify):
7. COLLEGE/SCHOOL:
(1) Engineering and Physical Sciences (2) Liberal Arts (3) Life Sciences and Agriculture (4) Business
(5) Other (please specify):
8. GENERAL GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF YOUR COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY:
(1) Northeast (2) Southeast (3) Midwest (4) Southwest (5) Northwest
9. SIZE OF YOUR COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY (i.e. GRADUATE STUDENT POPULATION):
(1) less than 500 (2) 500-1000 (3) 1000-1500 (4) 1500-2000 (5) greater than 2000
10. To the best of your knowledge, what is the male to female ratio in your department (including faculty, staff, and graduate students)?
(1) mostly male (2) mostly female (3) equally balanced (4) other
11. Are you a native speaker of English? YES NO
12. Do you regularly socialize with any of the following people in your department (circle all that apply)?:
(1) undergraduate students (2) graduate students (3) professors (4) other
13. Have you ever been romantically involved with someone in your own department?
YES NO
If so, with whom? (1) undergraduate student (2) graduate student (3) professor (4) other (please specify):

APPENDIX C: SEXUAL EXPERIENCES QUESTIONNAIRE - MODIFIED

For each item, please circle the number which most closely describes your experiences in the last 2 YEARS. A 0 indicates the described behavior never occurred; 1 indicates that it has happened once; and 2 indicates that it has happened more than once. If you circle 1 or 2, please indicate the sex of the person with who you had the interaction: M (male), F (female). Also, indicate the person's status: P (other professor), G (other graduate student), U (undergraduate student), O (other). If more than one person was involved in any one situation (e.g., both a graduate student and a professor habitually told suggestive stories), indicate all information which applies.

Never	Once	More than Once	Sex	Status
0	1	2	Male, Female, Both	Professor, Graduate Student, Undergraduate, Other

During the past 2 years, have you ever been in a situation where...

(1) ... an individual habitually told suggestive stories or offensive jokes?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(2) ... you habitually told suggestive stories or offensive jokes?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(3) ... an individual made crudely sexual remarks, either publicly in class, or to you privately?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(4) ... you made crudely sexual remarks, either publicly in class, or to someone privately?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(5) ... an individual made seductive remarks about your appearance, body, or sexual activities?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(6) ... you made seductive remarks about someone's appearance, body, or sexual activities?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(7) ... an individual was staring, leering, or ogling you in a way that was inappropriate, or that made you uncomfortable?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(8) ... you were staring, leering, or ogling someone in a way that was inappropriate, or that made him/her uncomfortable?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(9) ... an individual used sexist or suggestive teaching materials (e.g., pictures, stories, pornography) that were not relevant to the course topic?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(10) ... you used sexist or suggestive teaching materials (e.g., pictures, stories, pornography) that were not relevant to the course topic?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(11) ... an individual treated you "differently" because you were a male or female (i.e., favored one sex or the other)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(12) ... you treated someone "differently" because that person was a male or female (i.e., favored one sex or the other)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(13) ... an individual made sexist remarks (e.g., suggesting that traditionally masculine fields like engineering are inappropriate for women, or that there must be something "wrong" with men who want to be nurses)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(14) ... you made sexist remarks?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(15) ... an individual made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal or sexual matters (e.g., attempted to discuss or comment on your sex life)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(16) ... you made unwanted attempts to draw someone into a discussion of personal or sexual matters?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(17) ... an individual engaged in what you considered seductive behavior toward you (e.g., made flattering or suggestive remarks, asked you for a date, suggested that you "get together" for a drink, offered to give you a back rub)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(18) ... you engaged in what someone considered seductive behavior toward him/her?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(19) ... an individual gave you unwanted sexual attention?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(20) ... you gave someone unwanted sexual attention?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(21) ... an individual attempted to establish a romantic or sexual relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him/her?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(22) ... you attempted to establish a romantic or sexual relationship with someone despite his/her efforts to discourage you?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(23) ... an individual ever "propositioned" you?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(24) ... you ever "propositioned" someone?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(25) ... an individual subtly bribed you with some sort of reward (e.g., good grades or preferential treatment) to engage in sexual behavior with him/her?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(26) ... you subtly bribed someone with some sort of reward to engage in sexual behavior with you? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(27) ... an individual directly offered you some sort of reward for being sexually cooperative? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(28) ... you directly offered someone some sort of reward for being sexually cooperative? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(29) ... an individual actually rewarded you for being socially or sexually "cooperative" (e.g., going out to dinner, having drinks, establishing a sexual relationship)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(30) ... you actually rewarded someone for being socially or sexually "cooperative"?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(31) ... an individual subtly threatened you with some sort of "punishment" for not being sexually cooperative with him/her (e.g., lowering your grade, not getting a promotion, etc.)? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(32) ... you subtly threatened someone with some sort of "punishment" for not being sexually cooperative with you? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(33) ... an individual directly threatened or pressured you to engage in sexual activity by threats of punishment or retaliation? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(34) ... you directly threatened or pressured someone to engage in sexual activity by threats of punishment or retaliation? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(35) ... an individual made unwanted attempts to touch or fondle you (e.g., stroking your leg or neck, touching your breast and so forth)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(36) ... you made unwanted attempts to touch or fondle someone?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(37) ... an individual made forceful attempts to touch, fondle, kiss, or grab you?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(38) ... you made forceful attempts to touch, fondle, kiss, or grab someone?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(39) ... an individual committed indecent exposure (i.e., exposed their genitals to you)?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(40) ... you committed indecent exposure?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(41) ... an individual made unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse with you that resulted in your crying, pleading, or physically struggling?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(42) ... you made unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse with someone that resulted in him/her crying, pleading, or physically struggling?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(43) ... an individual attempted to force you to touch his/her genitals?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(44) ... you attempted to force someone to touch your genitals?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(45) ... an individual used force (squeezing your wrist, twisting your arms, holding you down, etc.) to have intercourse with you?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(46) ... you used force to have intercourse with someone?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(47) Have you ever engaged in sexual behavior you did not want to engage in because of promises or rewards? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(48) Has anyone ever engaged in sexual behavior he/she did not want to engage in with you because of promises or rewards? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(49) Have you ever been in a situation where you actually experienced some negative consequences for refusing to engage in sexual activity with an individual?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(50) Has anyone ever been in a situation where he/she actually experienced some negative consequences for refusing to engage in sexual activity with you?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(51) Have you ever engaged in a sexual behavior that you did not want to engage in because of such threats or fear of punishment?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(52) Has anyone ever engaged in a sexual behavior that he/she did not want to engage in because of such threats or fear of punishment from you?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(53) Have you ever been sexually harassed?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(54) Have you ever sexually harassed someone?
0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(55) Have you ever been raped? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

(56) Have you ever raped someone? 0 1 2 M F B P G U O

APPENDIX D: CONSEQUENCES OF AND RESPONSES TO VICTIMIZATION

As a result of any of your experiences you indicated on the previous pages, did you engage in any of the following behaviors?:

Circle all that apply

(1) dropped a course to avoid the professor or another student
(2) avoided or not enrolled in a course to avoid harassing or unwanted behavior
(3) reported unwanted behavior to a(n) {circle all that apply} (a) friend (b) professor (c) department chair (d) Affirmative Action office (e) Other:
(4) avoided the person who is bothering you
(5) instructed someone to cease his/her behavior towards you
(6) brought formal charges against someone
(7) Other:

As a result of any of your experiences you indicated on the previous pages, were there any personal consequences for you?

Circle all that apply

(1) emotional upheaval (i.e. feelings of guilt, sadness, and/or depression)
(2) drastic changes in eating habits
(3) difficulty working (e.g., lack of concentration, reduced productivity)
(4) difficulty with family or significant other
(5) physical symptoms (e.g., stomach problems, fatigue)
(6) Other:

APPENDIX E: EXPERIENCE WITH SEXUAL HARASSMENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

(a). Have you ever attended sexual harassment educational programs in the past?
YES NO

(b). If so, approximately how many? (circle)
(1) 1-3 (2) 4-6 (3) 7-9 (4) 10 or more

(c). When was your most recent program? (circle)
(1) less than 1 year ago (2) 1-2 years ago (3) more than 2 years ago

(d). Did you find the program effective? YES NO Why or why not?

APPENDIX F: KNOWLEDGE OF UNIVERSITY POLICIES AND PROCEDURES REGARDING SEXUAL HARASSMENT

How aware are you of the following policies and procedures? Circle the appropriate answer for each.

	Completely Unaware 1	Unaware 2	Aware 3	Completely Aware 4
(1)	Your university/college sexual harassment policy		1 2 3 4	
(2)	where to report a case of sexual harassment		1 2 3 4	
(3)	... if the victim is an undergraduate and the perpetrator is another undergraduate		1 2 3 4	
(4)	... if the victim is an undergraduate and the perpetrator is a graduate student		1 2 3 4	
(5)	... if the victim is an undergraduate and the perpetrator is a professor		1 2 3 4	
(6)	... if the victim is a graduate student and the perpetrator is another graduate student		1 2 3 4	
(7)	... if the victim is a graduate student and the perpetrator is a professor		1 2 3 4	

Where do you report each of the cases listed above (2-7)?

APPENDIX G: COPING STRATEGIES SCALE (HOLAHAN & MOOS, 1987)

Pick the most important problem you have faced during the previous year and indicate how often you have used each of the coping strategies listed below using the following scale:

Not at All 0 1 2 3 Fairly Often

(1)	0	1	2	3	Prayed for guidance and/or strength
(2)	0	1	2	3	Prepared for the worst
(3)	0	1	2	3	Tried to see the positive side of the situation
(4)	0	1	2	3	Considered several alternatives for handling the problem
(5)	0	1	2	3	Drew on my past experiences
(6)	0	1	2	3	Took things a day at a time
(7)	0	1	2	3	Tried to step back from the situation and be more objective
(8)	0	1	2	3	Went over the situation in my mind to try to understand it
(9)	0	1	2	3	Told myself things that helped me feel better
(10)	0	1	2	3	Made a promise to myself that things would be different next time
(11)	0	1	2	3	Accepted it; nothing could be done
(12)	0	1	2	3	Tried to find out more about the situation
(13)	0	1	2	3	Talked with spouse or other relative about the problem
(14)	0	1	2	3	Talked with friend about the problem
(15)	0	1	2	3	Talked with professional person (e.g., doctor, lawyer, clergy)
(16)	0	1	2	3	Got busy with other things to keep my mind off the problem
(17)	0	1	2	3	Made a plan of action and followed it
(18)	0	1	2	3	Tried not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch
(19)	0	1	2	3	Got away from things for a while
(20)	0	1	2	3	I knew what had to be done and tried harder to make things work
(21)	0	1	2	3	Let my feelings out somehow
(22)	0	1	2	3	Sought help from persons or groups with similar experiences
(23)	0	1	2	3	Bargained or compromised to get something positive from the situation
(24)	0	1	2	3	Tried to reduce tension by exercising more
(25)	0	1	2	3	Took it out on other people when I felt angry or depressed
(26)	0	1	2	3	Kept my feelings to myself
(27)	0	1	2	3	Avoided being with people in general
(28)	0	1	2	3	Refused to believe that it had happened
(29)	0	1	2	3	Tried to reduce tension by drinking more
(30)	0	1	2	3	Tried to reduce tension by eating more
(31)	0	1	2	3	Tried to reduce tension by smoking more
(32)	0	1	2	3	Tried to reduce tension by taking more tranquilizing drugs

APPENDIX H: ATTITUDES TOWARD SEXUAL HARASSMENT (MAZUR & PERCIVAL, 1986)

For each of the questions, circle the number which best corresponds to your beliefs using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

(1) An attractive woman has to expect sexual advances and should learn how to handle them. 1 2 3 4 5

(2) Most men are sexually teased by many of the women with whom they interact on the job or at school. 1 2 3 4 5

(3) Most women who are sexually insulted by a man provoke his behavior by the way they talk, act, or dress. 1 2 3 4 5

(4) A man must learn to understand that a woman's "no" to his sexual advances really means "no 1 2 3 4 5

(5) It is only natural for a woman to use her sexuality as a way of getting ahead in school or at work. 1 2 3 4 5

(6) An attractive man has to expect sexual advances and should learn how to handle them. 1 2 3 4 5

(7) I believe that sexual intimidation is a serious social problem. 1 2 3 4 5

(8) It is only natural for a man to make sexual advances to a woman he finds attractive. 1 2 3 4 5

(9) Innocent flirtations make the workday or school day interesting. 1 2 3 4 5

(10) Encouraging a professor's or a supervisor's sexual interest is frequently used by women to get better grades or to improve their work situations. 1 2 3 4 5

(11) One of the problems with sexual harassment is that some women can't take a joke. 1 2 3 4 5

(12) The notion that what a professor does in class may be sexual harassment is taking the idea of sexual harassment too far. 1 2 3 4 5

(13) Many charges of sexual harassment are frivolous and vindictive. 1 2 3 4 5

(14) A lot of what people call sexual harassment is just normal flirtation between men and women. 1 2 3 4 5

(15) Sexual assault and sexual harassment are two completely different things. 1 2 3 4 5

(16) Sexual harassment refers to those incidents of unwanted sexual attention that aren't too serious. 1 2 3 4 5

(17) Sexual harassment has little to do with power. 1 2 3 4 5

(18) Sexism and sexual harassment are two completely different things. 1 2 3 4 5

(19) All this concern about sexual harassment makes it harder for men and women to have normal relationships. 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX I: PROCLIVITY TO SEXUALLY HARASS
(BARTLING & EISENMAN, 1993)

For each of the following items, indicate the extent of your agreement/disagreement using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

(1) Women are flattered by sexual advances from men even when they fail to respond positively to these advances. 1 2 3 4 5

(2) It is natural for men to be more aggressive when it comes to sexual relations with women. 1 2 3 4 5

(3) Women are often inconsistent in terms of their non-verbal communications with men. 1 2 3 4 5

(4) Women often mean "maybe" or even "yes" when they say "no to sexual advances by men. 1 2 3 4 5

(5) It is important for men to control the initial development of their relationships with women. 1 2 3 4 5

(6) Women frequently use men to obtain status, security, or other things that they want. 1 2 3 4 5

(7) Women who dress in a sexy manner at work are deliberately sending a sexual message to men. 1 2 3 4 5

(8) Highly attractive individuals (opposite in gender to me) "drive me crazy" and I sometimes do or say things around them I can't help. 1 2 3 4 5

(9) Pregnant women use their conditions to justify doing less work on many jobs in comparison to their coworkers. 1 2 3 4 5

(10) Women are often flattered by sexual advances by their mail coworkers. 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX J: DEBRIEFING (STUDY 1)

Graduate School & Sexual Harassment: Experiences and Perceptions at UNH

Graduate students maintain a very unique and often precarious position within academia. Professors have a substantial amount of influence on their education and future careers. Benson and Thomson (1982) point out that professors have more direct power over graduate students than over undergraduates. In addition, graduate students often serve as teachers, working in a position of power over undergraduate students. The dual role of student and teacher creates a complex situation of blurred boundaries and power differentials. Only a few studies have examined the victimization of graduate students (McKinney, Olson, & Satterfield, 1988; Schneider, 1987), and no one has investigated graduate students as perpetrators of sexual harassment. The nature of graduate students' "double-bind" position at UNH was the focus of the study you participated in this semester.

The objectives of this study were to examine graduate students' experiences and perceptions concerning sexual harassment. More specifically, I wanted to assess (a) the nature and prevalence of graduate students' experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment, (b) individual differences in defining sexual harassment (e.g., male vs. female), and (c) the influence of graduate students' attitudes toward sexual harassment on their perceptions of the issue.

In order to accomplish these objectives, you were mailed a survey if you had been on assistantship. You completed measures of your demographics, experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment, behavioral and psychological responses to sexual harassment, beliefs about what behaviors constitute sexual harassment, knowledge about how sexual harassment is defined, awareness of university policies/procedures regarding sexual harassment, attitudes toward sexual harassment, general coping strategies, and proclivity to sexually harass. Many of these measures were previously developed by researchers and are viewed as reliable tools for examining issues surrounding sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment is a rampant social problem. Many researchers have examined this phenomenon within academia, however, their focus has often been limited to undergraduate students and faculty. Understanding the dynamics of sexual harassment for graduate students is of critical concern if we are to determine how to prevent sexual harassment in that population. I greatly appreciate your participation in this study and would be happy to discuss my results with you once I have completed data analyses. If you would like to receive a copy of the results of this research project, please send your name and campus address to: Kimberly Smirles, Psychology Department, Conant Hall. In addition, I will be presenting these results at a colloquium in the psychology department scheduled for early February. You are welcome to attend. If you have any further questions, please contact me, Kimberly Smirles (749-9687 or ksmirles@hopper.unh.edu).

References

Benson, D. J. & Thomson, G. E. (1982). Sexual harassment on a university campus: The confluence of authority relations, sexual interest, and gender stratification. Social Problems, 29 (3), 235-251.

McKinney, K., Olson, C. V., & Satterfield, A. (1988). Graduate students' experiences with and responses to sexual harassment. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 3 (3), 319-325.

Schneider, B. E. (1987). Graduate women, sexual harassment, and university policy. Journal of Higher Education, 58 (1), 46-65

APPENDIX K: DEFINITION CODING LIST

1. behavior unwanted
2. verbal behavior
3. physical behavior
4. power differential, power abuse
5. threats, bribes
6. gave examples
7. behavior repetitious
8. behavior creates substantial, consistent interference
9. behavior creates hostile, intimidating, environment
10. victim must indicate behavior is unwanted
11. behavior sexual
12. opposite sex dyads only
13. behavior due to sex, gender

APPENDIX L: SPSP MODERATOR'S ENDORSEMENT

"A note from the moderator: This is a survey about sexual harassment, etc. for graduate students. The researchers contacted me to ask if it might be distributed to the SPSP list, since many grad students subscribe. If you are a faculty member with grad students please consider forwarding this survey to them. - Chuck"

APPENDIX M: INFORMED CONSENT (STUDY 2)

Dear Fellow Graduate Student,

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the psychology department at the University of New Hampshire, and I am writing to ask for your help with my doctoral research. I am conducting an extensive study of interpersonal behavior in the academic workplace across the country. The purpose of this project is to assess people's experiences and attitudes toward such interactions. The only requirements to participate in this study are that you are a graduate student and have worked as a teaching or research assistant for at least one year.

I believe that you will find the survey interesting and informative. Some of the questions in the survey are of a personal nature. However, your responses are completely anonymous and confidential. Completing this survey should not take more than half an hour. Your participation in this research project is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the experiment at any time without penalty.

Completing the survey indicates your consent to participate. To return your survey, you can either anonymously e-mail it back to me (instructions for this procedure are included) or print up a hard copy of the completed survey and send it via standard mail.

I realize that your time is valuable. Therefore, I wanted to make it worth your while to complete the survey. If you decide to participate, you will be entered into a lottery for $100 by sending an e-mail or a postcard with your name and phone number. It is important to note that this e-mail or postcard will not be able to identify which survey is your own, because it will be sent in separately from your survey. To qualify for the lottery, I ask that you return your survey and lottery entry by DECEMBER 15, 1997. The drawing will be on December 5th, and the winner will be notified by phone.

I want to thank you in advance for taking part in this project. Please, feel free to contact me, Kimberly Smirles (ksmirles@hopper.unh.edu), with any questions or concerns which you may have. You will be sent a full description of the goals and purposes of this project once data collection is completed. Enjoy the rest of your semester!

Sincerely,
Kimberly A. Smirles

APPENDIX N: DEBRIEFING (STUDY 2)

Graduate School & Sexual Harassment: Experiences and Perceptions Across the U.S.

Graduate students maintain a very unique and often precarious position within academia. Professors have a substantial amount of influence on their education and future careers. Benson and Thomson (1982) point out that professors have more direct power over graduate students than over undergraduates. In addition, graduate students often serve as teachers, working in a position of power over undergraduate students. The dual role of student and teacher creates a complex situation of blurred boundaries and power differentials. Only a few studies have examined the victimization of graduate students (McKinney, Olson, & Satterfield, 1988; Schneider, 1987), and no one has investigated graduate students as perpetrators of sexual harassment. The nature of graduate students' "double-bind" position across the United States was the focus of this study.

The objectives of this study were to examine graduate students' experiences and perceptions concerning sexual harassment. More specifically, I wanted to assess (a) the nature and prevalence of graduate students' experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment, (b) individual differences in defining sexual harassment (e.g., male vs. female), and (c) the influence of graduate students' attitudes toward sexual harassment on their perceptions of the issue.

In order to accomplish these objectives, I conducted a search of the internet for various graduate student listservs around the country. Each of these listservs was e-mailed a survey. You completed measures of your demographics, experiences as victims and perpetrators of sexual harassment, behavioral and psychological responses to sexual harassment, beliefs about what behaviors constitute sexual harassment, knowledge about how sexual harassment is defined, awareness of university policies/procedures regarding sexual harassment, attitudes toward sexual harassment, general coping strategies, and proclivity to sexually harass. You were given the options of either e-mailing your survey back to me or sending a hard copy through standard mail.

Sexual harassment is a rampant social problem. Many researchers have examined this phenomenon within academia, however, their focus has often been limited to undergraduate students and faculty. Understanding the dynamics of sexual harassment for graduate students is of critical concern if we are to determine how to prevent sexual harassment in that population. I greatly appreciate your participation in this study and would be happy to discuss my results with you once I have completed data analyses. If you would like to receive a copy of the results of this research project, please send your name and address to: Kimberly Smirles, Psychology Department, Conant Hall, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH 03824. If you have any further questions, please contact me, Kimberly Smirles, at ksmirles@hopper.unh.edu.

References

Benson, D. J. & Thomson, G. E. (1982). Sexual harassment on a university campus: The confluence of authority relations, sexual interest, and gender stratification. Social Problems, 29 (3), 235-251.

McKinney, K., Olson, C. V., & Satterfield, A. (1988). Graduate students' experiences with and responses to sexual harassment. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 3 (3), 319-325.

Schneider, B. E. (1987). Graduate women, sexual harassment, and university policy. Journal of Higher Education, 58 (1), 46-65.

APPENDIX O: INFORMED CONSENT FORM (STUDY 3)

The purpose of this research project is to assess the effectiveness of sexual harassment prevention programs. In order to accomplish this, your knowledge, experiences, and attitudes concerning unwanted sexual behavior will be measured. You will be given three brief questionnaires to complete (two parts today and one mailed to you in approximately two months). Completing all three questionnaires should take not much more than a total of one hour.

Portions of these questionnaires contain somewhat personal questions. However, your answers will remain completely confidential. The questionnaires will be identified only by the last six digits of your student identification numbers. These numbers are for the sole purpose of matching up each of the three parts to the complete survey for each person; neither your name nor your identification number will ever be linked.

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the experiment at any time without penalty. If you complete the project, you will be entered into a lottery for $100 by sending in a postcard with your name and phone number. It is important to note that this postcard will not be able to identify which survey is your own; the postcard will be mailed in separately from your surveys.

Please, contact the experimenter, Kimberly Smirles (749-9687 or ksmirles@hopper.unh.edu), with questions or concerns which you may have at any point in time during this research project.

I certify that I have read the above information and fully understand what is involved in participating in this research project.

_____ I consent / agree to participate in this experiment.

_____ I refuse / do not agree to participate in this experiment.

_____
Print Name

_____
Signature

APPENDIX P: DEMOGRAPHICS (STUDY 3)

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY

Please, read each question carefully and take your time completing this survey. Remember that any information you give is completely confidential. If at any point in time you have a question or concern, feel free to contact Kimberly Smirles at 749-9687 or ksmirles@hopper.unh.edu.

For each item below, circle or fill in the appropriate response.

1. SEX: (1) Female (2) Male
2. AGE: years old
3. RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION:
(1) Catholic (2) Protestant (3) Jewish (4) Christian (5) Buddhist
(6) Muslim (7) Agnostic (8) Atheist (9) Other:
4. CURRENT MARITAL STATUS:
(1) Single (2) Married (3) Separated (4) Divorced (5) Other:
If you are single, which of the following best describes your current situation:
(a) not dating (b) dating different people (c) dating one person exclusively
(d) engaged (e) other:
5. NATIONALITY:
(1) American (2) Other (please specify):
6. DEGREE BEING SOUGHT:
(1) Masters (2) CAGS (3) Doctorate (4) Other:
7. COLLEGE/SCHOOL:
(1) Engineering and Physical Sciences (2) Liberal Arts (3) Life Sciences and Agriculture (4) Whittemore (5) Other:
8. To the best of your knowledge, what is the male to female ratio in your department (including faculty, staff, and graduate students)?
(1) mostly male (2) mostly female (3) equally balanced (4) other:
9. Are you a native speaker of English? YES NO

APPENDIX Q: BEHAVIORS FOR LABELING "SEXUAL HARASSMENT" (TIME-1)

2. Indicate the extent to which you believe that each of the behaviors listed below constitute sexual harassment:

definitely disagree	disagree	unsure	agree	definitely agree
1	2	3	4	5

(a) suggestive or offensive jokes
(b) crude sexual remarks
(c) seductive remarks about one's physical appearance
(d) staring, leering, or ogling
(e) sexist or suggestive teaching materials not relevant to the course
(f) differential treatment based upon one's sex
(g) sexist remarks
(h) unwanted attempts to discuss personal or sexual matters
(i) seductive behavior
(j) unwanted sexual attention
(k) attempts to establish unwanted romantic sexual relationship
(l) propositioning
(m) subtle bribes for engaging in sexual behavior
(n) direct offer of reward for sexual behavior
(o) actual reward for sexual behavior
(p) subtle threat for not engaging in sexual behavior
(q) threat of punishment or pressure to engage in sexual behavior
(r) unwanted attempts to touch or fondle
(s) forceful attempts to touch or fondle
(t) indecent exposure
(u) unwanted attempts to have sexual intercourse ending in crying, pleading, or struggle
(v) attempts to force touching genitals
(w) use of force to have sexual intercourse
(x) engaging in sexual behavior for rewards
(y) punishments for not engaging in sexual behavior
(z) engaging in sexual behavior for fear of punishments
(aa) rape

APPENDIX R: SCENARIOS USED IN SEXUAL HARASSMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM

Kim, a 20-year-old undergraduate, is taking a large lecture course in which a graduate student, Jeff, age 24, is a teaching assistant. Jeff begins approaching her after class and making light conversation. Over several weeks, he becomes increasingly personal, asking her intimate questions and eventually asking her out. Throughout, Kim has been polite and friendly, but she is increasingly upset at his advances. She has told no one. After making an excuse to avoid going out with Jeff, she takes her complaint to the Affirmative Action Office. An appointment is made with Jeff, but he fails to show up. A second appointment is scheduled, and Jeff arrives anxious and upset. It is apparent that he is confused by the whole incident, not sure why affirmative action has called him in. The director describes the student's feelings of powerlessness, and her fear for her grade. Jeff appears truly surprised, as Kim never conveyed her discomfort to him and he is a lonely graduate student who does not experience himself as someone with power.

1. Is Jeff's behavior sexual harassment or innocent flirting?
2. How should this situation be handled?
3. What are actions the department can take to avoid this kind of situation in the future?

Last summer a local shop was picketed for selling tee shirts printed with homophobic slogans. It is now the third week of fall classes. A young man enters your lab section wearing one of the shirts. Two other students in the lab section approach you, complaining they find the shirt offensive and hostile. They ask you to do something.

1. How would you <u>like</u> to respond?
2. What issues do you need to be thinking about?
3. How <u>will</u> you respond?
4. What are the implications of doing nothing?

APPENDIX S: CONSUMER SATISFACTION QUESTIONS

1. For each statement below, circle the response which most closely indicates your own perceptions of the program.

(a) How do you now feel about the issues surrounding sexual harassment?
(1) much more doubtful (2) more doubtful (3) no change
(4) more sensitive (5) much more sensitive

(b) How did this program affect your knowledge of sexual harassment?
(1) much more confused (2) more confused (3) no change
(4) more knowledgeable (5) much more knowledgeable

(c) How did this program affect your knowledge of the procedures for reporting sexual harassment?
(1) much more confused (2) more confused (3) no change
(4) more knowledgeable (5) much more knowledgeable

(d) How has this program affected your general awareness or concern for others?
(1) much less aware or concerned (2) less aware or concerned (3) no change
(4) more aware or concerned (5) much more aware or concerned

(e) As a result of this program, how likely are you to report sexual harassment if you EXPERIENCE it?
(1) much less likely (2) less likely (3) no change (4) more likely
(5) much more likely

(f) As a result of this program, how likely are you to report sexual harassment you OBSERVE with others?
(1) much less likely (2) less likely (3) no change (4) more likely
(5) much more likely

(g) How did this program affect your perception of the seriousness of sexual harassment?
(1) much less serious (2) less serious (3) no change (4) more serious
(5) much more serious

2. How would you rate your program presenters? Circle the appropriate response using the following scale:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

	Elizabeth Lewis	Kimberly Smirles
(a) was well-prepared	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(b) was knowledgeable about the topic	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(c) presented material effectively	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(d) encouraged discussions or questions	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(e) answered questions effectively	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(f) was respectful of participants' opinions	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(g) was enthusiastic about subject	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(h) was warm and friendly	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
(i) overall rating (1-poor to 5-excellent)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX T: SELF-MONITORING SCALE (SNYDER, 1984)

For each of the following items, please circle the most appropriate response for yourself:

(1) I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. TRUE or FALSE
(2) At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like. TRUE or FALSE
(3) I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. TRUE or FALSE
(4) I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. TRUE or FALSE
(5) I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others. TRUE or FALSE
(6) I would probably make a good actor. TRUE or FALSE
(7) In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention. TRUE or FALSE
(8) In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons. TRUE or FALSE
(9) I am not particularly good at making other people like me. TRUE or FALSE
(10) I'm not always the person I appear to be. TRUE or FALSE
(11) I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor. TRUE or FALSE
(12) I have considered being an entertainer. TRUE or FALSE
(13) I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. TRUE or FALSE
(14) I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations. TRUE or FALSE
(15) At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going. TRUE or FALSE
(16) I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should. TRUE or FALSE
(17) I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end). TRUE or FALSE
(18) I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. TRUE or FALSE

REFERENCE NOTES

[1] Sex is defined by an individual's biological state of being male or female. Gender is defined by society's expectations for "male" and "female" behavior. Despite this distinction, researchers and theorists often use these terms interchangeably.

[2] In 1990, the EEOC revised its guidelines by dropping "education" from its definition of sexual harassment (29 C.F.R. 1604.11(a) (1990)).

[3] Fitzgerald and Hesson-McInnis (1989) argue that a one-dimensional continuum of severity is an oversimplification. Any model of sexual harassment should also include a dimension on the type of harassment (i.e. hostile environment vs. quid pro quo). For example, hearing one sexist remark may not be as severe as experiencing an attempt to fondle you. However, working in an environment where sexist remarks are a daily occurrence can have just as severe an effect (i.e., behaviorally, psychologically) on you as being fondled.

[4] Some researchers only deal with male perpetrator-female victim dyad of sexual harassment. Since this is the most common situation (see Fitzgerald, 1993; Maypole & Skaine, 1983), the bias is not unfounded. However, discussing women only as victims and men only as perpetrators remains a bias. It cannot be assumed that men's experiences as victims are similar to women's, or that women's perpetrating behavior are the same as men's.

[5] Several other explanations have been offered to explain why victims do not label their experiences as sexual harassment. For example, it has been argued that women do not attach the label of sexual harassment because (1) acknowledging victim status can lead to feelings of devaluation, (2) they fear being considered overly sensitive or whining, (3) they cannot believe that an acquaintance would intentionally harm them, (4) they fear they would be blamed for the harassment, labeled a troublemaker, or not be believed, and (5) their professional opportunities would be in jeopardy (Magley & DeNardo, 1996; also see reviews by Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997 and Koss, 1990).

MacKinnon (1987) argues that "part of the power held by perpetrators of sexual harassment is the threat of making the sexual abuse public knowledge. This functions like blackmail in silencing the victim and allowing the abuse to continue. It is a fact that public knowledge of sexual abuse is often worse for the abused than the abuser..... [reporting] means open season on anyone who does not want her entire intimate life available to public scrutiny," (p. 114-115). Researchers have found that these expectations are not unfounded. As with rape, victims of sexual harassment face analysis of their actions and motivations (Koss, 1990). Dansky and Kilpatrick (1997) reported that assertive responses (i.e. formal reports) are typically met with retaliation. Safran (1976) found that 50% of the 9,000 professional women surveyed said they, or someone they knew, had quit or been fired because of sexual harassment. While society expects direct responses to sexual harassment (because silence is equated with consent), it often punishes women for taking such action. As stated by Anita Hill, "That harassment is treated like a woman's 'dirty secret' is well known. We also know what happens when we 'tell'. We know that when harassment is reported the common reaction is disbelief or worse," (Eskenazi & Gallen,

1992, p. 13). It is not entirely clear as to why this occurs, however, several explanations have been proposed. One theory is that assertive action on the part of women violates feminine sex roles (e.g., MacKinnon, 1979). Thus, the vicious circle of oppression continues.

These explanations, however, are not the focus of the current research.

[6] Since feminist beliefs scales are specific to women, and sex-roles scales' categories are confounded between men and women (i.e. non-traditional men are equated with traditional women), a scale assessing people's attitudes towards the phenomenon of sexual harassment is used.

[7] However, most theorists (e.g., Lips, 1991; MacKinnon, 1979) and researchers (e.g., Fitzgerald, 1993) agree that rape falls along the same continuum of sex discrimination, misogyny, and violence as sexual harassment.

[8] Sex was included in the MANOVA, because it was possible that men and women may have differed in their marital status. For example, if more women were single, this might explain why more single people were victimized.

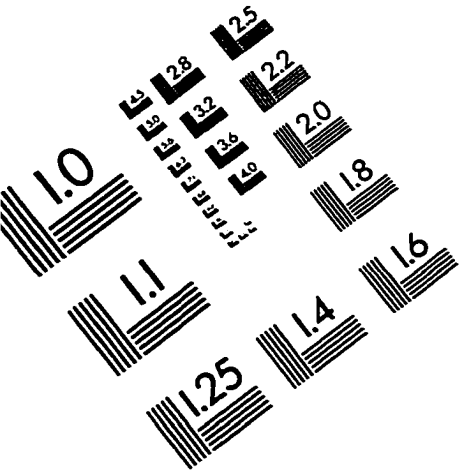
[9] The PSH scale will not be used in this study, because participants' awareness of the nature of the program will most likely bias their responses in more politically correct directions.

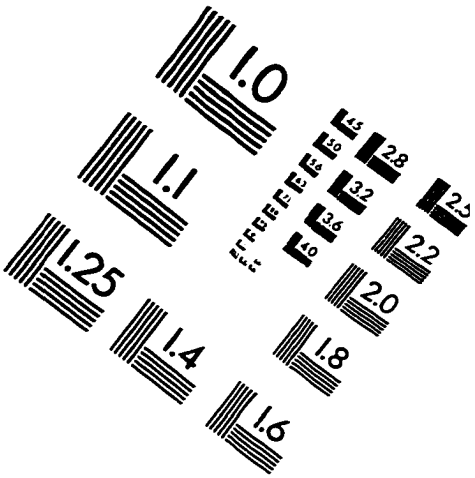
[10] Preferably, participants' knowledge and attitudes would have also been assessed at this point. However, time constraints prevented more in-depth measurements of the program's outcomes. In addition, there existed the risk of practice effects in repeating the measures from Time-1.

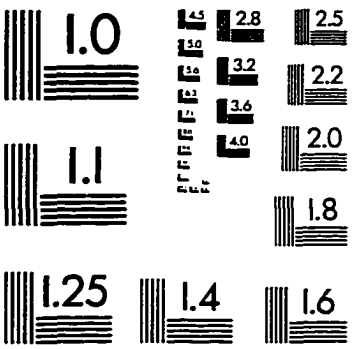
[11] Scores of 1 (definitely disagree), 2 (disagree), and 3 (unsure) were recoded as "no." Scores of 4 (agree) and 5 (definitely agree) were recoded as "yes."

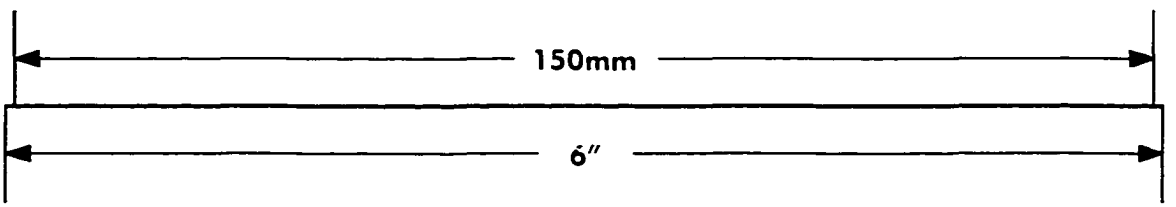
[12] Time-2 assessments of labeling and attitudes were used for the replication analyses for two reasons. First, Time-2 was the only time other critical variables were measured (frequency of victimization and perpetration, proclivities to sexually harass, consequences and responses to unwanted sexual behavior). Second, Part 3 (Time-2) was conducted at the same time as Studies 1 and 2. Therefore, there could be any historical differences between the three studies.

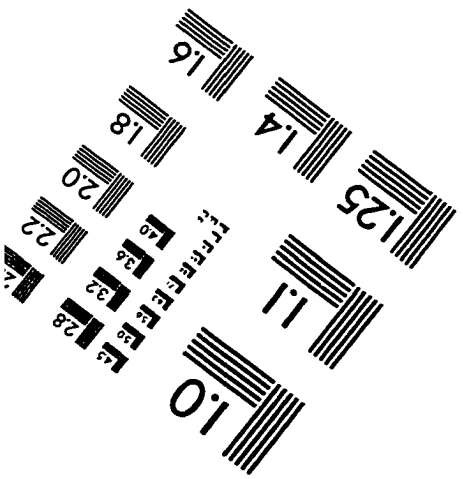
IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

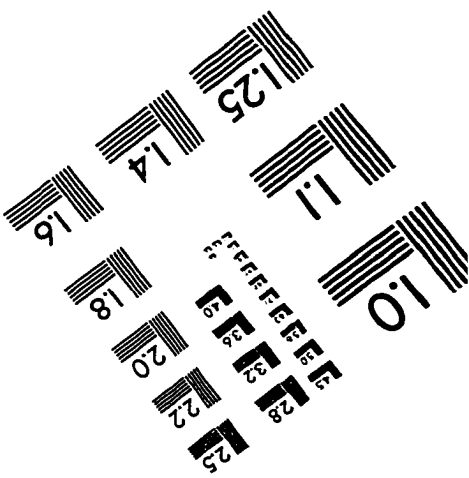












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